The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1891.

The Week.

ANYBODY who attempts to verify Mr. Blaine's "facts" will find himself in difficulties. In his letter to the editor of the Bucyrus (Ohio) *Journal* the other day, Mr. Blaine said:

"Germany, without negotiating a formal treaty, has removed the prohibition on pork, and our Government, in consideration thereof, has left her sugar on the free list. This opens to us an entirely new market, and $15,000,000 to $20,000,000 of American pork will be consumed per annum, where not a pound has been taken for ten years."

We had the curiosity to look at the Commerce and Navigation Reports in order to see what our exports of pork to Germany were before the prohibition began. We found them as follows for the years 1880 and 1881:

Exported to Germany.	1880.	1881.
Bacon and hams.....	$1,786,494	$1,670,326
Pork.....	79,364	108,218
Total.....	$1,865,858	$1,778,544

If the prohibition had never existed, we should have exported to Germany in *ten* years about as much as Mr. Blaine says we shall export to her *each* year hereafter. This is about as near as Mr. Blaine ever comes to a fact that is in any way concerned with mathematics. It is a misrepresentation also to say that the removal of the prohibition by Germany had any connection whatever with the reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff, or that it had any relation to any tariff. Germany is at liberty to put a duty of a dollar a pound on pork tomorrow if she chooses to do so. What we objected to, and the only thing we objected to, was the prohibition of our pork while other pork was admitted. Congress passed a law on this particular subject on the 30th of August, 1890, and it was in consequence of this law that the prohibition was removed. The McKinley Bill, either with or without reciprocity, had nothing to do with it.

Mr. Blaine attempts to spike the gun he himself loaded when he wrote his famous letter to Senator Frye about the McKinley Bill. He now says that his condemnation of it was written before the reciprocity clause was put in, and that that removed all his objections. But it is to be remembered that the reciprocity clause of the bill is notoriously not what Mr. Blaine wanted it to be and tried to make it. He wanted the duty on sugar left on, and one on hides put on, so that he could actually have some concessions to offer instead of, as now, only a threat to make. He also adds that "the reciprocity provision is proving very useful, especially in farm products, and more particularly in the case of the two articles mentioned in the paragraph quoted, pork and flour." In this he differs from the last campaign document put forth by the Bureau of Statistics, in which it is admitted that "it is not to be expected that the results of the treaty with Brazil will be very marked as yet." He differs still more from the *Dry Goods Economist*, which says in its issue of October 17: "In the face of a reciprocity treaty now in operation with Brazil, it will surprise most people to learn that exports of cotton cloth to that country have fallen off nearly 50 per cent. in value." And the reduction on flour in Cuba is not yet in effect, while not a pound of pork has yet been exported to Germany under the new inspection laws. But the letter will serve its main object, which undoubtedly was to show that Mr. Blaine does not propose to let the President steal his reciprocity thunder, and that he by no means wishes to be considered as a "neglectable quantity," politically. But what a strange state of things it is which makes it necessary for him to go into an elaborate argument to prove that he is "not opposed to the McKinley Bill," when that bill is about all there is to present-day Republicanism!

Such a gathering of representative Methodists as has been in session in Washington the past fortnight could not fail to bring out some of the typical characteristics of the denomination. We do not think it unfair to say that the intellectual note of Methodism was sounded in the opening address of Bishop Hurst, when he said: "Our Articles of Faith stand precisely to-day as in the last century, which makes us think that, like Minerva from the brain of Jupiter, they were born full-grown and heavily armed." It is to be hoped that it was not as characteristically revealed in the naïve acknowledgment of the author of the leading paper on "The Influence of Modern Scientific Progress on Religious Thought," that he "did not affect to have had any training either in science or theology." While by no means depreciating education, and possessing many excellent institutions of higher learning, Methodism has, after all, put more emphasis on feeling than knowledge, and has exalted practical results above other considerations. This has helped to develop a certain headlong exuberance which is popularly associated with the Methodist church. The intensely practical trend of the organization has led it to take a more open and active part in public affairs than any other denomination, unless it be the Catholic. In certain sections of the West, the political world used to be classified as Republicans, Democrats, and Methodists. The heated injection of English politics into one day's deliberations of the Conference showed that Great Britain knows something of this. Yet, with all this, there is ample justification for the pride with which Methodism points to its great growth and achievements in this country. With an ecclesiastical system excellently adapted for the purpose, it has gone into the waste places of the land and been always in the front ranks of the pioneers of the West, a conservative and civilizing force.

It was not, perhaps, to be expected that the foreign delegates to the Methodist Conference should have been accurately acquainted with the status of the Pan-American arbitration scheme. Hence it excites no great surprise to find that several of them made inexact statements about it on Saturday last. But what shall be said of the misleading remarks on the same subject made by President Harrison? He said: "In the recent conference of American States at Washington, the proposition was distinctly made and adopted by the representatives of all, or nearly all, of the Governments represented, that, as applied to this hemisphere, all international disputes should be settled by arbitration.' What are the facts? The Pan-American Congress had no power to establish such a "proposition" as the President referred to. What it did do was to agree to recommend to the several Governments the negotiation of a treaty for international arbitration. Ratifications of that treaty were to be exchanged at Washington by May 1, 1891; if they were not exchanged by that date, the whole project was to lapse. So far as our information goes, it has been agreed to only by Ecuador and Bolivia. It was not agreed to by the United States. It has therefore completely lapsed, and all comes back to the expression of the personal and unofficial views of the Pan-American delegates. Why complain of European Governments for having "shelved" the proposition when laid before them? It has been shelved all around, even in the country of its origin. President Harrison must have known all this, but it could never be gathered from his misleading language.

President Harrison went on to say that international arbitration was not available in cases where a nation was imbued with an aggressive spirit and moved by a desire for aggrandizement. In such cases it was for a Christian sentiment to remove the causes of dispute, *i. e.*, the bad spirit, and when this was out of the way the principle of arbitration would find easy acceptance. He expressed the desire of America for peace with the whole world, and concluded with the elevated conception that

"There is a unity of the Church and of humanity, and the lines of progress are the same. It is by this great Christian sentiment, characterized not only by a high sense of justice, but by a spirit of love and forbearance, mastering the civil institutions and gov-

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ernments of the world, that we shall approach universal peace and adopt arbitration methods of settling disputes."

Although these remarks were received with applause by the assembly, the clergy could not have been much edified by being told that arbitration is only for the good, and that war, as a means of settling international disputes, will be abolished as soon as nations are peacefully inclined. If, instead of these stupidities, he had said, "I promise to use my best endeavors to bring to peaceful arbitration every dispute that now exists, or may exist during my term of office, between this country and any other on either hemisphere," he would have uttered words that would have resounded around the world. Such words would have left him ample margin for difficulties foreseen or unforeseen, and would have committed him no further than he is already committed by our part in the Pan-American Congress. But as the pledge of a particular man always goes further and awakens more echoes than the same man's share in a joint resolution—especially when he is President of the United States—we can but regret that Mr. Harrison neglected so grand an opportunity to pledge himself personally to follow the Christian precepts which he found so admirable for mankind in the aggregate.

The Keystone Bank mystery has had another phase added to it by the dismissal of the Government experts who were examining its books. It was announced on September 10 that the work of these experts had been brought to a standstill at its most interesting point because of failure of the Government's appropriation for such service. The Committee of Fifty of Philadelphia citizens at once offered to pay the salaries of the experts until their work was completed, and Secretary Foster accepted the offer and told the experts to go ahead. It was said that they had just got in sight of most interesting revelations when they stopped work. They were supposed to have begun again at this interesting point when they resumed their labors on September 15, a month ago. Now comes the news that they have been dismissed because they have failed to keep their agreement to make weekly reports of their discoveries to Secretary Foster, having, in fact, made no report since August 9, sending the Secretary since that time nothing whatever except a statement of their salaries and expenses. There are many queer things about this. If their last weekly report was made on August 9, there were four other weekly reports due when they were stopped by the Government on September 10, yet failure to make these reports was not the excuse given at that time for stopping the work. Possibly it is made the excuse now because they have failed for four weeks longer. It is complained also of them that they had too much other work on hand and were not attending as they should to this. Mr. Reeves, the Chairman of the Committee of Fifty, says of the experts: "Their duty was to endeavor to ascertain if any criminal act had been committed, and as soon as they found this they were to notify the Department. This is what the present men are looking after in the books, and if any one has committed a crime, I have no doubt that the evidence will be brought out against him." By present men we presume Mr. Reeves refers to the experts employed by the local authorities. We trust his hopes will be realized as to the discovery of the criminals, but the chances are against it, for a paralysis of one kind or another has fallen upon every investigator just as he was on the point of making this discovery.

A meeting of the signers of the address against Quay methods in Pennsylvania was held in Philadelphia on Wednesday week, and a permanent organization was effected with Herbert Welsh as President, Henry C. Lea and Justus C. Strawbridge, Vice-Presidents, Charles Richardson, Secretary, and an Executive Committee of twenty eminent Republicans. It was decided to call the organization the "Reform Republican League of Pennsylvania," and to declare its object to be "to break up boss rule and dishonorable political methods in Pennsylvania, and to restore to the people the control of their public affairs." The Executive Committee was directed to continue the work of organization, and to establish branches in all parts of the State. Although the members of this organization have declared repeatedly that their movement had nothing to do with the present campaign, being aimed solely at the proposed reëlection of Senator Quay, that persistent defender of Republican rascality, the Philadelphia *Press*, declares: "The agitation against Mr. Quay at this particular time has the suspicious look of a movement against the Republican party much more than against the junior Senator." Would it be possible, O sixty-per-cent. friend of Bardsley, to find any "particular time" for starting an agitation against Quay which you would not at once deprecate as a movement against the Republican party? Are not Republican rascalities and the Republican party synonymous terms with you? What "particular time" and what "particular measure" with a reformatory object have ever suited you and your kind?

The *Times* makes a strong point against Mr. Fassett's sincerity in his promise to give the State pure government, and, indeed, his perception of what honest government really is, when it recalls the fact that, as Secretary of the Republican National Committee, he reported the sickening resolutions of endorsement and eulogy for Quay and Dudley when those worthies retired from the Committee last July. A man who believes that the robber of the Pennsylvania State Treasury has "placed the cause of good government under deep obligation," and who considers the "blocks-of-five" business a proof of "manliness of purpose and patriotism as a citizen," thereby "gives himself away" as one who does not understand what good government and patriotism mean. If the question in the pending canvass were between the endorser of Quay and Dudley and a Democrat who had distinguished himself by fighting the Quay and Dudley tendencies in his own party, there would be no room for doubt as to the duty of the independent voter. As it is, Mr. Fassett will have only himself to blame if he finds that this unconscious revelation of his character costs him enough votes to lose him the election.

The result of the municipal election in Indianapolis on October 6 is cause for rejoicing to all who believe in independent voting and the application of business methods to public affairs. The contest was between a representative of the Republican Machine and the Democratic incumbent, who, during his first term, had shown that he was nobody's man. The vote was remarkably large—25 868, against only 21,074 in the preceding city election—and Mayor Sullivan was reëlected by a majority of 2,728, against 1,791 in 1889. Mr. Sullivan ran far ahead of his ticket by reason of the fact that many Republicans supported him in preference to an unfit candidate of their own party. The *News*, the Independent journal of the city, which supported Harrison for President in 1888, was an earnest advocate of Mayor Sullivan's reëlection.

The meeting of the American Board last week signalized the complete disappearance of the so-called "Andover question." It appears not to have made so much as a ripple on the surface this year. The result marks the entire victory of the liberals. In the election of corporate members they were given the fullest recognition. Without any need of debating or struggling, they have come quietly into the rights for which they were vainly battling five years ago. This, of course, was inevitable from the start, given the conditions of the case. There was a palpable absurdity in the setting up by an instrument of the church of a more rigid standard of orthodoxy than that enforced by the church itself. This abnormal and intolerable condition of affairs has now been brought to an end, and, whatever one's views about the theological questions involved, he must concede that it is a good thing to have the denomination put in a straightforward and consistent position all around. To Dr. Storrs, and the liberal policy which he has enforced as President of the Board, belongs a great deal of the credit for bringing about this quiet revolution.

The prediction made by our London correspondent a fortnight ago that Mr. Balfour would succeed Mr. W. H. Smith as leader of the House of Commons, is already ful-

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filled by official announcement. Mr. Goschen intimated as much in his speech at Cambridge last Thursday. The place ought in the natural course of things to have fallen to Mr. Goschen himself, who is an older man and a far more experienced politician than Mr. Balfour, and has for three years filled the most important office the Ministry has at its disposal in the lower house. But he was disqualified by the fact of being one of the Liberal Unionists, to whose possession of good offices the rank and file of the Tories have never been reconciled, and by the not less important fact that as a fighting man he cannot compare to Balfour. When thoroughly roused, he goes to pieces, says what he ought not to say, and leaves unsaid what he ought to have said. For this reason Sir William Harcourt delights in stirring him up. His worst failure came on him at the hands of "Tim" Healy, the Home-Ruler, who pointed out, with the utmost politeness, at the last moment, that Mr. Goschen was cut off from making a certain disposition of money he had raised by a liquor tax, by a previous bill of his own passed early in the session. The expression of Mr. Goschen's countenance when the Speaker ruled that "Tim's" point was well taken, is said to have been a wonderful study in facial indication of the emotions.

The renewal of strikes among the London dockers, this summer and fall, shows how futile was the interference of Cardinal Manning and the other philanthropists at the time of the great strike two years ago. The Labor Commission created by Parliament has taken considerable testimony on the subject of the present condition of the 'longshoremen, especially of the casual laborers employed on the docks. Mr. Ben Tillett, the General Secretary of the Dockers' Unions, told the Commission that "things were worse for the casual worker since the strike," and he was corroborated on this point by other witnesses. The great investigator of London poverty, Mr. Charles Booth, is of the same opinion, and so expresses himself in his last volume. One cause of this result is the action of the dock proprietors in increasing the number of their permanent hands and in classifying the rest in three divisions. Those in the first division have the first chance at any extra work, and those in the last are called upon only after the offer has been made to all the others. In this way the great overcrowding of the business was made palpable to all, and the obvious absurdity shown of expecting the dock companies to employ more men than they needed, or to pay higher wages than the business would admit, even when there were thousands of men eager to take the lower wages. The affair of 1889 was hailed at the time as a great triumph of the forces of philanthropy over the laws of trade; but, as is the case with all such triumphs, the real victory was on the other side.

A remarkable incident in the Baring liquidation has just been made public. Among the assets of the firm were $10,000,000 in 6 per cent. bonds of Uruguay, which the Barings had taken from the Government of that country, but had never marketed. They seemed to the liquidators little better than waste paper, in view of Uruguay's critical financial situation and threatened default on her other outstanding bonds. Still, the bonds were estimated at one-half their face value, and the attempt was made to market them. But they would not go by themselves, and so a scheme was devised to dovetail them in with Uruguayan securities already on the market. The thing was finally done as follows: It was proposed to Uruguay that the interest on her entire foreign debt should be scaled down from 5 to 3½ per cent., on condition that these Baring bonds should be "unified" with the new consolidated issue. The proposition is still pending, but is almost certain to be accepted. The financial objections to it are almost as strong as the moral, and it can be justified only on the plea of the necessity of putting the Barings on their feet again. But if it succeeds, it will be at the expense of innocent and helpless holders of Uruguayan bonds, and will be but one more proof of the loss brought by the Barings on thousands of English investors in South American securities. Besides, the precedent would be a terribly dangerous one, and would be almost sure to be followed by other distressed republics in Spanish America. We are glad to be able to add that the Barings protested against this reduction of interest on their property, which was assented to by the banks which held as collateral the bonds in question.

When the last military bill was passed in France, there was a loud cry from the clergy and the clerical newspapers that a new outrage had been perpetrated upon the Church. The law provided that the theological students in the French seminaries should be enrolled, and that they should be held to a certain amount of military service with the colors. This, in the eyes of ecclesiastics, exposed them to grave dangers of insult from their godless companions, and of loss of faith or of moral tone from garrison life. The first year of service for the seminarists has just come to an end, and none of these direful results seem to have been realized. The seminarists have lived in camp or in barracks as undisturbed as if they had been so many atheists. Their religion has been respected, and their faith and morals appear to be as sound as ever. Some go back to be ordained; others take their old places at St. Sulpice and elsewhere. It is hardly possible that they will not be all the better priests from this brief experience of the world and of the life of men of their own generation. They will have learned many lessons from the tolerance and respect that they have received from companions who neither knew anything nor cared anything for the special studies in which good seminarists are absorbed, and who did not agree in the least with their religious opinions. They can hardly fail to be better patriots after serving under the flag, and perhaps also better republicans. And they will have had the great gain of a breath of fresh air. This was much needed, for the students in the French seminaries are cribbed and confined on every side by a set of minute rules and regulations such as are quite unknown anywhere else in the world, save, perhaps, in some boarding-schools for young ladies.

Russia's financial agents have announced, with a flourish of trumpets, that their new $100,000,000 loan has been satisfactorily placed. They have further embellished their report by the announcement, which was duly cabled over the world in the press despatches, that the loan has been subscribed for seven times over. This assertion is, of course, absurd, especially in view of the fact that, two days before it was made, subscriptions had been so scanty as to render necessary an extension of the advertised time limit. In fact, the Parisian bankers through whom the new loan was offered, have been busily engaged all the week in offering the bonds on the Bourse at a discount—a policy scarcely compatible with an over-subscription of any magnitude. The truth of the matter seems to be that Russia has followed the recent example of borrowing-corporations the world over in paying to bankers a handsome bonus for "underwriting" the loan — that is to say, for assuming it on their own account, with the purpose of selling it out, from time to time, either "over the counter" to actual investors, or through brokers on the Bourse. It is therefore at least doubtful whether the Russian Government will be able for some time yet to control its full $100,000,000. But as Russia habitually borrows three or four times the amount of its immediate needs, it is not likely to be embarrassed by this consideration. A London correspondent informs us that $40,000,000 have come to hand in bona-fide private subscriptions; itself a highly remarkable achievement, all things considered.

Meantime it may well be asked what is to be the end of all this astonishing financiering on the part of the Czar's Ministers. The present year had already been signalized, before the present loan was advertised, by the calling in of nearly $100,000,000 credited to Russia in the various European banks. This enormous sum was an unused surplus left over from previous loans, and its recall was the immediate occasion of the urgent demand for our gold by the bankers of London and Paris. Yet, scarcely has the gold all been gathered in at St. Petersburg when another equal sum is asked for. It is always a conceivable explanation that Russia is making final preparation for a European war; but it is more likely that she is preparing for a large deficit of revenue consequent upon the failure of the present harvest.

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PREPARATION FOR 1892.

ONE of the most surprising things in the present political canvass in this State is the indifference of the Democrats to ballot reform, as displayed in the open repudiation of the blanket ballot in the platform. It is the more surprising because it is displayed by men who try to persuade us that the coming State election is chiefly important on account of the influence it will have on the Presidential conflict in 1892, and who say they wish to win now in order to show the doubters and trimmers that they can win in the larger field one year hence.

This election can be made, or could have been made, a real preparation for the Presidential contest in one way, and in one way only—that is, by forcing the Legislature to amend the Ballot Act so as to provide the blanket ballot this coming winter. This would be worth more than the "prestige" of a dozen State victories; and the failure to see its importance on the part of leading State Democrats outside Tammany is something very odd.

The explanation of this importance is very easy. The chief issue of the coming Presidential campaign, it is now admitted on all hands, will be the tariff. The silver craze is rapidly subsiding, and will probably have been killed—as it was essentially a debtors' and speculators' craze—by the good harvest and resulting sense of prosperity long before the conventions meet. Now the chief supporters of the tariff are the great employers of labor, who have money invested in it, and who treat this legislative power of taxing their neighbors in order to swell their own profits as property to be defended, like any other property, by any weapons which the occasion may make necessary. They profess to believe, and probably in many cases do believe, that those who seek to lower the tariff are really robbers, who are trying to despoil them of their lawful possessions, besides plunging the country into misery. They have, therefore, ever since the tariff became a political issue, poured money into the hands of the Republican managers, in enormous sums, and asked no account of the disposition made of it. In addition to this, they have intimidated all their employees or dependents into voting the Republican ticket by such means as seemed best suited to the purpose. The Norwich manufacturer who frankly said that "he would mortgage his mill," if necessary, to prevent the return of David A. Wells to Congress, revealed both the state of mind and the *modus operandi* of the whole class.

The effectiveness of these methods was fully exemplified in the election of 1888. No intelligent Democrat, we are sure, and very few intelligent Republicans, doubt that the defeat of Mr. Cleveland was achieved, under the direction of Quay and Wanamaker, by corruption on a tremendous scale, backed up by the covert and open intimidation of the working class by the manufacturers and their customers. Nor is there the smallest sign that these methods have been abandoned, or that any of those who used them or profited by them are ashamed of them, or will hesitate to resort to them again in 1892. The fulsome eulogies heaped on Quay and Dudley by the Republican National Committee when those worthies became too notorious to be allowed to act as Chairman and Treasurer of the Committee any longer, show that the confidence of their party in their system still remains unshaken.

Now with these facts before their eyes, it is surely the first duty of the Democrats to procure before 1892, if possible, the passage of a genuinely secret ballot law, such as the Australian ballot is, in every State in the Union. This duty has been fully recognized by the Democrats in many other States. In nine States Democratic Legislatures have passed ballot laws with the blanket ballot; and in two others strongly Democratic, Texas and Kentucky, Constitutional amendments have been adopted directing the Legislatures to frame such laws. In Vermont, Maine, Pennsylvania, and Illinois the united stand of the Democrats in favor of such laws forced the Republican Legislatures to enact them.

The opposition of the Republicans in all these States and also in Indiana and Ohio showed clearly what effect they expected it to have on their political fortunes. The corruptionists and intimidators, in fact, understand the measure thoroughly, and the trial of it, wherever it has been made, has fully justified their apprehensions. It has raised the Massachusetts Democrats, for instance, out of the slough of despond, and is giving them a strong hope of carrying the State in 1892. It gave Indianapolis, the very fountain-head of Republican corruption, to the Democrats a few days ago by the largest majority they ever polled.

Under these circumstances, it is Flower and not Fassett who ought to stand for the blanket ballot in this State. It is the Democratic, and not the Republican platform which ought to call for it with vehemence, and the loudest-mouthed supporters of it should be those who think the State election a sort of preliminary ballot for the Presidency of the United States This, and not vague blather about "prestige" and "influence" and "first guns" and "forerunners," would be real preparation for the fray of one year hence. The emancipation of the wage-earning class is, in fact, the first and great condition of Democratic success in the Federal field. The Republicans have, through the tariff, an immense corruption fund to fall back on, and great power over the lives of an immense body of voters, and there is no way under heaven of destroying this fell influence but the provision for the poor and the humble of an absolutely free and untrammelled ballot.

To what do we owe this extraordinary failure of the Democratic party, in this great State, to perform the very first duty of the crisis? Simply to a desire to "placate" Tammany. To this organization, which, as Mr. Curtis truly said in his recent letter, is "a national disgrace," as well as a disgrace to the city and State, we owe the absurd spectacle of a Democratic hostility to a secret ballot, and Democratic support of a system which enables bribers and employers to follow their slaves to the polls, and see that they fulfil their contracts and do their bidding when they cast their votes. It is Tammany, and not the party, which profits by the "paster ballot." Without some means of following the voter and seeing that he obeys his orders and carries out "deals," the Society could not long survive even in this city. So that, as a matter of fact, we are actually witnessing the sacrifice, as far as this State is concerned, of State and national interests of the highest importance to enable a parcel of worthless adventurers and criminals to live on the city taxes. That so many Democrats of light and leading should connive at concessions so shameful and disastrous, is the great puzzle of the day.

HISTORY OF THE PRESENT SILVER LAW.

As the late Secretary Windom came to his death while making a speech at a public dinner against the free coinage of silver, he has been in some sort canonized among the apostles of sound money. And such he was undoubtedly at heart. Nevertheless he was, if not the father, certainly the grandfather, of the present silver law, of July 14, 1890 He was also the undoubted father of the present Republican conceit that the Government ought to buy the entire product of *American* silver mines. The Republican politicians and newspapers are saying that their party was constrained to pass the present law in order to head off free coinage. What are the facts? What is the history of that law?

In 1878 a silver agitation, headed by Mr. Bland, culminated in the passage of a free bimetallic coinage bill in the House, for which even Mr. McKinley voted. It was rejected in the Senate. The outcome of the conflict between the two houses was the illogical compromise of 1878, which Mr. Allison proposed, and which became a law over the veto of President Hayes. That enactment has been the prolific parent of our subsequent silver anxieties. It initiated the compulsory purchasing and coining of fractional silver by the Treasury, with a limited legal-tender faculty that was devised for minor coins in 1853. The law of 1878 was that of 1853 with the legal-tender restriction removed. Silver had fallen from $1 30 in 1873 to $1 20 an ounce in 1878. The law of 1878 compelled the Treasury to purchase and coin not less than two and not more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month. Every Secretary stood on the minimum quantity, but, nevertheless, when Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated, over 250 millions of silver dollars had been coined. On February 27, 1885, President-elect Cleveland wrote to Mr. Warner of the peril of the continued purchasing and coining of silver, and urged a repeal of the law of 1878. He said:

"These being the facts of our present condition, our danger and our duty to avert that danger would seem to be plain. I hope that

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you concur with me, and with the great majority of our fellow-citizens, in deeming it most desirable at the present juncture to maintain and continue in use the mass of our gold coin, as well as the mass of silver already coined. This is possible by a present suspension of the purchase and coinage of silver. I am not aware that by any other method it is possible. It is of momentous importance to prevent the two metals from parting company; to prevent the increasing displacement of gold by the increasing coinage of silver; to prevent the disuse of gold in the custom-houses of the United States in the daily business of the people; to prevent the ultimate expulsion of gold by silver."

Congress would not stop the purchasing. To avert the then impending crisis, the Associated Banks of New York loaned the Treasury (July 30, 1885) ten millions of gold, on the collateral security of fractional silver coins, and the crisis was averted. Secretary Manning in two annual reports urged the next Congress to stop the silver-purchasing and coining. He urged it to prevent the hoarding, hiding, and deporting of gold coins, and also to promote international bimetallism. Congress turned a deaf ear, and silver-buying and coining went on at two millions a month till Mr. Harrison was inaugurated On November 1, 1889, we had bought some 300,000,000 ounces of silver and coined therefrom 343,638,001 silver dollars. In 1878 fine silver was $1 20 an ounce, but in 1889 it was only 93 cents, a fall of over 20 per cent.

When Mr. Harrison and Mr. Windom came into power, there was no real demand for an increase of Government purchases of silver. On the contrary, sound business men, coinage experts, and currency reformers asked that no more Treasury purchases be made. But what did the new Administration do? Secretary Windom gave up one-quarter of his annual report of December, 1889, to the silver question, which was not then at all "in the air" or a burning question. What did he say? He condemned compulsory purchasing *and coining*, as Cleveland and Manning had done, but upheld purchasing. He showed how futile it had been to arrest the fall of silver. He advocated the use of both metals as full legal-tender money, and declared the problem to be the attainment of such use. He went over six plans and condemned each and all. He said that "public sentiment" moved in favor of international bimetallism, but "some of the most powerful nations are not yet ready to act." He declared that nobody approved of the present policy of purchasing and coining only twenty-four millions a year. He opposed the purchasing and coinage of forty-eight millions a year, under the law of 1878, but only because he had a better plan. He denied that there was any contraction of the currency, and showed that it had increased by six hundred millions of dollars since 1878. He opposed free coinage; he opposed a heavier silver dollar as impracticable, and the issuing of certificates to depositors of silver bullion because that would be in effect free coinage for depositors. What did he propose as a solution of the silver problem? The proposition he urged was this:

"To open the mints of the United States to the *free deposit of silver*, the market value of the same (not to exceed $1 for 412.5 grains of standard silver) at the time of deposit to be paid in Treasury notes; said notes to be redeemable in the quantity of silver which could be purchased by the number of dollars expressed on the face of the notes at the time presented for payment, or in gold, at the option of the Government, and to be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues; and when so received they may be reissued; and such notes, when held by any national-banking association, shall be counted as part of its lawful reserve."

He advised that the *notes* be full legal tenders. The Republican House adopted that plan, but the Republican Senate substituted for it a free-coinage measure, and the law of 1890 emerged out of the conflict beween the two houses. There is little substantial difference between the faults of Windom's plan and the faults of the law of 1890.

GOVERNMENT RAIN-MAKING.

THE more fully the history of the Government rain-making expedition to Texas develops itself, the more ridiculous does it become. Now that the inner facts have leaked out, our readers can draw instruction, reproof, or amusement from the spectacle, as they deem meet. The project of sending a special expedition all the way to Texas to go through an ordinary Fourth of July celebration, for the sole purpose of bringing down rain upon the parched fields of that State, looks theatrical enough in itself. Taken in connection with the fact that a few hours' examination by a competent person would have shown that great battles had been without influence on the weather, vague surmises to the contrary notwithstanding, it becomes ludicrous.

To show how groundless is the notion that there is any relation between cannonading and rain, one need hardly go further than the little book in which Mr. Edward Powers tried to prove the contrary. By painstaking research he showed that during our civil war a great many "battles," "artillery fires," "gunboat firings," "attacks," and "naval actions," one-tenth of the whole number, perhaps, were followed by more or less rain, either next day, or in two, three, or four days. A farmer who should go out and blow his horn every Monday morning for a year would make a better showing than this, for his tooting would surely be followed by rain in two or three days oftener than one time in ten. Considering that we commonly have May showers through the whole early summer, and that actions of the kind which Mr. Powers most largely brings in were going on every week, not to say every day, coincidences of rain and battles were hardly possible to avoid. Every one who has given attention to meteorology knows that the atmospheric currents which bring rain are in almost constant motion, generally from west to east, at the speed of a railway train. The great mass of air which was over the heads of the combatants during a battle would, next day, be hundreds of miles away, to be replaced by another mass from an equal distance. If a cannonade brought rain at all, it would do it in a few minutes; if we wait hours, we have a new mass of air coming from a distance of hundreds of miles.

We have asked a mathematical expert to calculate for us the probable weight and force of an aerial current such as the explosions of a few balloons were expected to start or guide. He says, in substance, that the weight of the air is such as to press upon every square inch with a force of about fourteen pounds. This makes a weight of a little less than a ton to every square foot, and about 25,000,000 tons to every square mile. Multiplying by the area of Texas, we find that the aerial current over that State weighs more than five millions of millions of tons. The effect of the jump of one vigorous flea upon a thousand-ton steamship, running at a speed of twenty knots, would be vastly greater than that of the explosion of a ten-foot balloon upon this current. Indeed, the flea project would be the more sensible of the two, because the force of an explosion in the air goes out equally in every direction, and so would neutralize itself, whereas if the flea was made to jump off from the stern of the ship, the reaction of his feet would really push the ship along.

An appropriation for rain-making was inserted in the agricultural bill by the last Congress in connection with the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture. Several months passed away without either the Forestry Division or the Weather Bureau showing any sign of a desire to avail itself of the chance of immortality so temptingly held out. Indeed, we suspect that the chiefs were chuckling over the embarrassment of the honored head of their department in deciding what to do with the money. Then Senator Farwell, the putative father of the whole scheme, suggested the employment of a Washington attorney named Dyrenforth to take charge of the business. This gentleman had the indisputable qualification of absence of bias, being quite innocent of meteorology or of any other branch of science outside of his profession, and was therefore willing to take hold of the business seriously, instead of laughing at it, as all the scientists of the poor Secretary were suspected to be doing. How good a man he was from this point of view is evinced by the fact that, although he was going to make rain, he did not take a rain-gauge with him to measure it. Whether this was because he had never heard of such an instrument, or because such unpoetic conceptions as inches and hundredths would spoil the artistic beauty of his report, we do not know.

The expedition set out with many good words from the newspapers, who sought to add éclat to it by dubbing its chief "General," although this campaign against the sky was his maiden effort in the military line. It arrived on August 5, with the car-load of materials for the manufacture of dynamite and explosive gases so graphically described by the "General" in the *North American Review*. At first the weather was dry, but on the 10th there was a shower—how much of a shower no one

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can tell, as the estimates vary from a few hundredths of an inch, hardly enough to wet the ground, all the way up to two inches, which is the General's own estimate. To have a rain come on its own account when his preparations for compelling it were not half made, would have been rather annoying had he not remembered that he had been trying his dynamite the day before, and had made quite a number of explosions. The cause of the rain was evident to the General, who would have been much surprised by the information that the air from which the rain fell was hundreds of miles away at the time of his explosions. The first telegraphic report ran: "Preliminary explosions made yesterday; raining to-day." In the *North American Review* it is expanded into a brilliant success, with nearly two inches of rain.

The preparations went on apace, but in a few days it became evident that a rainy season was setting in. Although the mornings were clear, the afternoons were cloudy, and the clouds were blacker and more threatening every day. Everything was ready for a regular battle on August 17, and next day the ground batteries roared almost constantly for twelve hours, while the explosion of oxyhydrogen balloons added terror to the scene. Just how much attention should be given to the assertions of an official of the Weather Bureau that a rain area covering 800,000 square miles was formed to the north of Texas before the roar of the batteries began, we leave to the judgment of the reader. The admitted fact is that rain commenced before night. One reporter says it was a light shower, but the General says "a drenching rain, which fell in torrents for two and a half hours" over several counties, and flooded the roads under four to forty inches of water.

Another brilliant success was scored on the 25th of August, when the weather-maps showed a repetition of the wide area of rain. Simultaneously with the formation of this area, the General began to discharge his batteries, and next day another brilliant success was scored. The chief had to leave for home after this triumph, but his lieutenants were still operating at the last accounts, so far as weather would permit them. They have found that in the absence of their General the clouds do not heed their artillery except "under favorable conditions," which persistently refuse to occur. In dry weather it is no use to bombard, because the weather keeps dry, as they have at last found by experience; and when a rainy spell sets in, what is still the use? It is evident that they lack the practical skill of their chief, who, as he himself says under his own signature, had a special line of explosives "to keep the weather in an unsettled condition."

All this may seem very funny, but it has more than one serious side. The unsophisticated farmers of Texas cannot imagine that the Government of the United States would spend thousands of dollars in sending a party two thousand miles away to indulge in the silliest performance that human ingenuity could devise; and they are contributing freely of their hard-earned money to supplement the work of the Government. What will they think when they find out "the true inwardness" of the affair? And, if our Government can be conceived to have a soul, should it not be ashamed of allowing such a deception to be practised upon its citizens? The least it should in honor do is to appropriate a fund for reimbursing the farmers.

Then, what possibilities are opened up in the event of a foreign war! If the Government can publicly organize and send out such an expedition as we have described, with the approval of its scientific authorities, what shall we say of the kind of men it enlists in its service? If, as we have every reason to believe, these authorities disapproved of the project from the beginning, and refused to take any part in it, and yet the project went on, what limit can we set to the possible absurdity of its operations against a public enemy? If Mr. Secretary Tracy should send out the North Atlantic Squadron to melt the icebergs on the Banks by bombarding the Gulf Stream off New York, his act would not be a whit more absurd than that of his colleague in sending his rain-making expedition to Texas.

THE POPULATION OF THE GLOBE.

To estimate the population of the globe at any given period with any approach to accuracy is a difficult, not to say an impossible, task. Only about one-half of the human race has been made the subject of systematic enumerations; the dates of the most recent enumerations in different countries are six years apart; and even then the official statistics are not always calculated to inspire unlimited confidence. A striking case in point is offered by our own census of 1890, which, although taken at the lavish outlay of more than eight millions of dollars, and with the aid of a vast army of enumerators and other officials, bristles with errors of which it is safe to say that more and more will come to light as its results are submitted to a more rigorous scientific analysis. If results obtained by such elaborate and expensive machinery are open to so many grave suspicions, it is by no means surprising that in the case of countries whose population can only be estimated, or, in plainer language, more or less plausibly guessed at, there should be the widest discrepancies between the various estimators or guessers. An extreme example is presented by the Chinese Empire, for which the estimates of reputable statisticians vary from 250,000,000 to 430,000,000. The difficulties of the task, however, have not deterred the experts in statistics from attempting its solution; and, by a patient and detailed examination and elimination of the manifold sources of error, figures have been arrived at which can lay claim to at least a temporary validity, and may be safely used for practical purposes.

Among the most highly esteemed and most trustworthy of such compilations have been the tables of population of Behm and Wagner, of which seven successive editions appeared between 1872 and 1882, when they were interrupted by Behm's death. After an interval of nine years this useful publication is now resumed, under the editorship of Hermann Wagner and Alexander Supan, in a quarto volume of 271 pages of statistics brought down to August, 1891, and including the British census of April 6 of this year. It bears the imprint of Perthes in Gotha and Westermann in New York. Other recent similar works are those of Émile Levasseur (1886-'87) and Hübner-Juraschek (1889).

The extant statistical material concerning the area and population of the habitable globe is submitted by Profs. Wagner and Supan to a minute and highly intelligent criticism, and their conclusions are in every case supported by reasons which are weighty and convincing. They estimate the total population of the globe at 1,480 millions, of which Europe has 357, Asia 826, Africa 164, America 122, Australia 3, the Oceanic Islands 7½. More than one-fourth of the human race is found in China and Japan, the former counting 350,000,000 and the latter 40,000,000; more than one-fifth is in India, 324,000,000, of which 286,000,000 belong to British India. Comparing the chief European States with ours, the only one that exceeds our 63,000,000 is Russia, 93,000,000. The others range as follows: the German Empire 49,000,000, Austria-Hungary 41,000,000, France 38,000,000, Great Britain and Ireland 38,000,000, Italy 30,000,000, and Spain 17,000,000.

The density of population is greatest in Europe, which averages thirty-seven inhabitants to the square kilometre, against nineteen in Asia, five in Africa, and three in America (2,823 square kilometres = 1,090 square miles). It will thus be seen that if the American and the Asian continents were as densely populated as Europe, the former would hold nearly the whole of the present population of the globe, and the latter a far greater population. The comparative densities of the principal countries, beginning with the most thickly populated, are as follows: Belgium 207 to the square kilometre, the Kingdom of the Netherlands 138, Great Britain and Ireland 124, Italy 105, Japan 105, the German Empire 91, China 90, British India 76, Switzerland 72, France 71, Austria 66, Denmark 57, Portugal 48, Spain 35, West Indies 22, United States 7. The order of precedence is somewhat changed if Germany and Great Britain are viewed, not as entities, but as composite States, and the States composing them are taken separately. In that case the kingdom of Saxony appears as the most densely populated country in the world, having 233 inhabitants to each square kilometre; and next comes England, with 209, and after that Belgium as above. If we take the separate States of our Union, we find at the top Rhode Island with 106, and Massachusetts with 104, ranging about even with Italy and Japan; next is New Jersey, 71, the same as France and Switzerland; Connecticut 57, the same as Denmark; New York 47, and Pennsylvania 45, a little less than Portugal.

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An endless series of interesting comparisons suggests itself, but we will here confine ourselves to a few selections which may afford crumbs of comfort to the despondent publicists who view with so much alarm the increasing army of immigrants. The area of the United States is very nearly equal to that of all Europe, which has a population of 357,000,000; the State of Texas alone has a greater area than either Germany or Austria, whose populations are respectively forty-nine and forty-one millions. If that State were as densely settled as Massachusetts, it would hold nearly seventy millions—as much as France and Great Britain together. The area of the Middle Atlantic States is a little in excess of that of Italy, and, with a population as dense as that of Massachusetts, could find room for all the Italian people. In order not to go to extremes, we refrain from deducing the startling results that could be obtained by using the population of England or of Belgium as a basis, although there is no good reason why considerable portions of our country should not maintain as thickly settled a population. The very moderate assumptions made above are sufficient to show how little we are in danger of being crowded out of house and home, even if one entire half of all Europe and of all China were to be dumped upon our shores as fast as the steam fleet of the world could bring them here.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF PAUL DUDLEY WITH THE ROYAL SOCIETY.

As the son of one Governor of Massachusetts, and the grandson of another Governor of that Province, the Hon. Paul Dudley was born with such advantages as attach to social standing in a colony. He was himself Attorney-General of the Province from 1702 to 1718; then a judge, becoming Chief Justice in 1745. It is in his character as a savant in the early years of the last century that we must concern ourselves with this old worthy of New England, whose name is commemorated in the Dudleian lecture of Harvard University.

The early papers of the Royal Society of England not only have been preserved, but are very accessible by means of a printed Index. If the Index had been brought down to a later date, it is quite possible that something fresh might be gleaned from the correspondence of Franklin with the Royal Society. The letters from which the subjoined extracts have been made were written by Dudley to the Secretary for the time being of the Society, and, of course, do not appear in the published Transactions of that body.

Writing from Boston on the 20th of June, 1719, Dudley says, referring to maple sugar, he cannot renew his correspondence with John Chamberlayne "on a sweeter subject (pardoning the pun)." To his chapter upon maple sugar he has nothing to add but, that "our Physitians look upon it not onely as good for the common use as the West Indie sugar, but to exceed all other for its medicinal virtue." If his first essay prove acceptable, he may proceed further, and he says, "in particular I believe I could furnish you with some curiositys with respect to locusts (I mean the Insect) which would surprise you." Stepping aside from scientific subjects, Dudley touches upon matters of general interest. "We are just now rejoicing to hear of the defeat of the Spanish Invasion." . . . "On the other hand, I am greatly distressed to hear that Arrianisme (however it may be softened or disguised) prevails so much in the Nation, and especially among the Clergy of the Dissenters. The Church had need to pray now more than ever that He who walks in the midst of the golden candlesticks would hold the Starrs in his own right hand." Chamberlayne is requested to favor him with a particular account of that affair, and with "the true state of the controversy, and what means are taken to prevent the spreading of the Infection." Dudley mentions that his father "grows an old man apace."

On the 15th of March, 1720, he writes that the "Journall of Mr. Kellogg's Trading voyage from Canada to Missasipi is what I took from his own mouth and then digested into the method you see." Dudley says he has sometimes thought it might not be improper to communicate Kellogg's "corrections and observations to Mr. Hammond, sometime of the Navy, to whom Mr. Senex's map of North America is dedicated, or to Mr. Halley of the Royal Society, to whom that of South America is addressed, and who, indeed, corrected it." He makes a present to the Royal Society of a moose, "as being a Royal beast." Should it be in his power, he will send a live moose. He would have sent some further curiosities from New England, along with the moose, but that he was afraid of falling under the censure of Chamberlayne and Dr. Mather for sending them "by Douzens." Then he adds, "I hope my poyson wood tree came safe to your hands without harm."

Bearing Paul Dudley's signature, but without the date of transmission, there is "An Account of the Cataract or Falls of Niagara, taken at Albany, October the 10th, 1721, by P. Dudley from Monsieur Borassaw, a French native of Canada."

In a letter dated at Roxbury on the 14th of April, 1722, Dudley sends an account of a new island that rose up among the Azores in November, 1720, with Capt. Robertson's observations and draughts, also "a small piece of the cynders or pumice stone." He desires that Chamberlayne should offer the draught to Mr. Professor Halley, "who is the father of all charts or Mapps of the sea."

On the 2d of November, 1721, Paul Dudley was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. Writing from Roxbury on the 3d of November, 1722, to the Secretary of the Society, the new Fellow says: "It is with great sincerity I acknowledge my unworthiness of the great honour the Society have done me, as in admitting me one of themselves so in accepting any of my performance, and to use the Poet's words:

"'Haud equidem tali me dignor honore.'

The diligent and ingenious Mr. More has lost no time in his searches after the productions of nature in this countrey since his arrival, and it has been a great pleasure to me to have given him some assistance therein." Our New England scientist then proceeds to make full acknowledgment of an awkward mistake he had made: "I cannot finish this letter without making a public acknowledgment of a great mistake I committed in my account of the poison wood tree, when I acquainted the Society that it bore no berries, for I now find it to be beauteous, and have sent some of the very berries. This last summer I sent a box of that poyson wood by one Capt. Cutler, who left it, as he tells me, with a brother-in-law of his in London, Mr. Callowell, who may be heard of at the Exchange in London."

Writing on the 6th of July, 1723, to Dr. Jurin, the Secretary of the Royal Society, Dudley says: "The miscarriage of my poyson wood by Mr. Callowell was some little mortification to me, because, as I remember, I put into his box a Draught of the late new Island that rose out of the sea near the island of Fayal, which, if the Society have not yet seen, I can recover, for I kept an exact copy of what the shipmaster presented to me, who, indeed, was the first Englishman that discovered it. Our friend Mr. More is gone to the neighbouring Colony's with all the recommendations we could possibly give him from hence."

On the 3d of October, 1724, he writes from Roxbury: "I have now presumed to send you a few observations on the plants of New England, as a gleaning after Mr. More's greater harvest, which I hope he has long since spread before the Society. I am endeavouring after a short natural history of our Whales, which I hope to send you some time this winter, with a box of some few curiosities to amuse you with. I did myself the honour some months since of sending you the relation of an extraordinary cure by sweating in Turf, but do not yet know whether it ever arrived."

On the 10th of October, 1724, he says: "This is my second and short letter, by the King's ship, and serves only to tell you that I have done myself the honour to present the Society, by Capt. Darell's hands, with a cane made out of the jawbone of a spermacoeti whale, and also a tooth taken out of the same fish, of which creature I hope in my next to give the Society a very particular account."

From Boston he writes, on the 11th of December, 1724, that he hopes in the spring to send a further account of some remarkable cures by a new way of sweating "practised by some of our physitians." He has observed among the English prints an advertisement of a new treatise of philosophy in opposition to Sir Isaac Newton, and wishes for the opinion of the secretary of the Royal Society upon the book, and whether it be worth sending for.

A letter of the 19th of December, 1724, is by way of introducing Dr. Zab. Boylston, as regards whom he writes: "I dare not pretend to be a judge in his profession, but he is in high esteem in his own country, for his great skill, long experience, and happy success in surgery, and I know him to be an ingenious and worthy man; and God made him a singular blessing in our late terrible small pox. While some hundreds died in the natural way, he was the happy instrument of saving many scores of lives by the new method of Inoculation." . . . "I understand his design in his present voyage is to improve himself yet further in the new and happy way of cutting for the stone."

On the 2d of April, 1725, he writes from Roxbury: "I beg the favour that nothing may be published as from the Royal Society about Ambergreese till you receive my account of that secret, for I have taken no small pains to be a master of that matter, and the Society may depend upon the account I shall send them, having got it from the most capable persons in this Country." From Roxbury, on the 5th of April, 1725, Dudley forwarded 'An essay upon the Natural History of Whales, with a particular account of the Ambergreese found in the Sperma Coeti Whale. In a letter to y^e^ Publisher by y^e^ Honourable Paul Dudley, F.R.S.' "I have been much assisted herein," he says, "by the Rev. Mr. Greenleafe of Yarmouth, near Cape Cod, and Mr. J. Coffin, sometime of the island of Nantucket, both of them places famous for the Whale Fishery." In this paper Dudley first published the conclusion at which the Ameri-

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can fishermen had arrived, that ambergris was produced in whales by disease. In a patriotic spirit he wrote: "I hope the Society will accept of this first Essay, and allow my poor country the honour of discovering, or at least ascertaining, the origin and nature of ambergreese." After mentioning that he was enjoying "a little ease from his gravely pains," he proceeds: "I observe the Cambridge Dictionary spells Sperma Coeti, Parmacity. If you judge it best to write the word so, I must pray you to see it altered where it occurs."

From Roxbury, on the 7th of November, 1725, he writes: "I should be glad to tell you that I had undertaken, according to your desire, observations on the weather. I have yet no Barometre, but expect one in the Spring, and when it comes I am afraid my riding the Circuit, and frequent absence from home, will render it impracticable for me to be constant in my remarks." . . . "Mr. Roby (?), sometime a fellow of our college at Cambridge, tells me that he has lately sent over to the Royal Society three or four years observations on the wind and weather."

On January the 21st, 1726, he writes from Roxbury: "Mr. Greenwood, one of this Country, who has spent some years in London under Dr. Disaguliers, is lately returned to us, and I hope will make and transmit such observations in Natural Philosophy and occurrences of that nature as may deserve the Society's acceptance."

The sage of Roxbury sent quite a budget of contributions to the Royal Society, on the 21st of January, 1726. There is "A remarkable cure of a person sweating in malt in New England, October, 1724." The heroic cure described by Dudley was applied to Thankful Fish, a young woman of Falmouth in New England, who was subject to faintings. Next is a cure of severe rheumatism by "Sweating in Rum," effected in the person of the wife of Mr. Richard Dummer of Newbury. Then comes "An Account of a stone taken out of a horse, at Boston, in the year 1724." The stone weighed 5½ lbs., and measured 17 inches one way, and 17¾ inches another way. After this is "A relation of a man's ear, remarkably Fly-blown, and cured, 1724." Mr. Jeremiah Fuller of Newton, near Boston, a farmer of good credit, was the subject of this experience. To this follows "A short account of the Aurora Borealis that appeared on the 27th day of March, 1726 at night in Roxbury, and many other places in New England." Two other papers complete the contribution. These are "A surprising instance of the nature and effect of Lightning, June 24th, 1724," and, "Salt Water, or the Spray of the sea, carried many miles into the Country," etc.

On the 13th of November, 1727, Dudley communicated an "Account of the several earthquakes which have happened in New England, since the first settlement of the English in that Country, especially the last which happened on Oct. 29, 1727."

The last letter was written at Roxbury on the 12th April, 1733, and is addressed to Dr. Mortimer. In it Dudley writes: "I have endeavoured after my poor fashion to observe the seasons and have now sent them. Mr. Greenwood, our mathematical professor, who lives but five miles from me, acquaints me that he likewise does the same."

Besides his contributions already referred to, Paul Dudley furnished the Royal Society with papers upon the following subjects: "A description of the Moose deer in America," "A method lately found out in New England for discovering where the Bees hive in the Woods in order to get their honey," "Of a new sort of Molosses made of apples," "Of the degenerating of smelts," "Account of the rattle snake."

When that disreputable self-dubbed Knight, Sir James Hill, after failing to get admission to the Royal Society, wrote his abusive 'Review of the Works of the Royal Society of London,' he did not fail to attempt to throw ridicule upon Dudley. Referring to Dudley's contribution respecting ambergris, the self-styled Sir James characterized the New England observer as "the ignorant introducer of an ignorant paper of somebody's else, to a society who were ignorant enough to do both of them honour for it." This was not bad by way of abuse; but, the disappointed medico notwithstanding, Dudley's explanation of the origin of ambergris is that which holds good to-day. Hill's venom had need to vent itself still further upon our early New England scientists, and hence the following biting snarl: "The third [paper] is by the Honourable Paul Dudley of credulous memory, a gentleman damned to fame by many a well-intended but ill executed paper: one of the first encouragers and supporters of this now immortal Society, and who seems to have had a very great share in the establishing, by example, the principle since so happily introduced into the Body—that it is not necessary for a Member of the Royal Society to understand the subject he writes about."

PAUL BOURGET IN ITALY.

PARIS, September 30, 1891.

ONE of my friends, who is somewhat paradoxical, said to me some time ago: "I have a great admiration for Pierre Loti, and, besides, I am extremely grateful to him." "Why?" asked I. "He has killed the *genre descriptif*, of which I am heartily sick. This profuse, minute, elaborate, photographic, continuous description of things big or small, important or unimportant, becomes in the end very fatiguing. Now Loti has pushed the art of description as far as it can go. He has been a painter in words more than anybody. Who can think of describing the sea after the 'Pêcheur d'Islande'? Who will dare paint Japanese flowers, the chrysanthemums, after him? I think the French Academy would do well to offer a prize, and a very large one, to any one who can write a volume of three hundred pages without using a single adjective or adverb." It is quite true that the art of description has been carried very far in our time. There is a realistic school in literature as well as in painting, and I am sometimes amazed on reading, in some of the light papers which are open to literature, articles which display a curious and almost morbid talent for description.

I made these reflections before opening a new book by Paul Bourget, which bears the singularly characteristic title of 'Sensations of Italy.' Mark the word sensations—not impressions. It is all the more characteristic of the time in that Bourget is not, like Guy de Maupassant, a materialist: he is essentially a spiritualist; he delights in analyzing the most delicate shades of thought, of passion; he lives, so to speak, in the human heart, especially in the feminine heart. But even he must sacrifice to the gods of the hour. In the novels which have made his reputation, and which are striking and sometimes very deep studies of the weaknesses, the failings, the complexities of the human heart, he must here and there indulge in elaborate descriptions of furniture, of dresses; the thinkers must make room for the *tapissier* and the *couturier* (for there is now such a word in our tongue). To be sure, even these materialistic and to my mind somewhat vulgar descriptions of the surroundings of his heroes and heroines have an object—the influence of the *milieu* must be felt. A poor and weak man, suddenly thrown among all the luxuries of our millionaires, and among the women who are the costly flowers of our Parisian parterre, is a curious object of study. Still, Bourget sometimes goes too far, and he gives the painful impression of caring too much for wealth and the surroundings of wealth himself. A man of the world ought never to care for his clothes, to give a thought to them: when they are new, they must be worn as if they were old. Balzac has long, very long, descriptions, but they always prepare you for the drama; they are intensely suggestive. The descriptions in Bourget's novels have too much sameness. One fine drawing-room must resemble another fine drawing-room; and the description of them seems very dull to those who are accustomed to live in fine drawing-rooms. The play of passion, the dialogue, ought to fill almost completely the modern novel.

My criticism, of course, cannot apply to a book of travels. A traveller must perforce be descriptive, and therein lies the great difficulty in writing a good book of travels. This difficulty increases tenfold when you have to write on Italy, a country which more than any other has been visited and described; and Bourget felt it when he began his work with these words: "Reader, have you preserved, notwithstanding the present political misunderstandings, a passionate fondness for Italy, and in Italy for the corners which are more refractory to our levelling cosmopolitism? Once across the Alps, have you, in consulting your guide-book, thought of those little towns which have only two or three pictures, but divine pictures, whose legendary name evokes some great historical memory?" And so he goes on, and almost begs pardon for giving us his notes of a journey undertaken in the autumn of 1890, across Tuscany, Umbria, the Marches, Otranto, and Calabria, outside of the great classical centres.

I am so fond of Italy, and have spent so many happy hours in that country, that I have read every line of these 'Sensations.' The circumstances in which the journey took place (Paul Bourget was married last year, and took his wife with him on his journey) contributed to increase the natural sensibility of the author; he becomes in some pages almost a poet. But, strange to say, his usual sadness does not seem to be relieved—for Bourget is essentially sad; the comic vein is entirely wanting in him; he has no humor; he is always depressed, and his novels are pervaded with an almost painful melancholy.

His 'Sensations' begin at Volterra, and from Volterra we are taken to Colle, Siena, Monte Oliveto, Pienza, Montepulciano, Chiusi, Città della Pieve, Orvieto, Perugia, Assisi, Ancona, Foggia, Lucera, Bari, Brindisi, Lecce, Taranto, Cotrone, and Reggio—not a banal itinerary, as you see; a ramble through parts not in the ordinary current of tourists. Bourget makes no pretension to be an archæologist or even an art critic. His notes are condensed. I quite approve of his method of not trying to *do* everything, and to remain always under a powerful and strong impression left by some great work of art. It is so pleasant to leave an Italian city, and to say to one's self, "I will come again," though perhaps we never shall come again. But notes taken in this spirit are apt to become mere pretexts for fine writing. Bourget's 'Sensations' generally end in some

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psychological meditations and analyses; his mind is bent in this direction, and, as Milton has said, "the mind is its own place."

Bourget expresses some opinions which deserve to be noticed. At Orvieto he criticises the mania for restoration which has seized upon the architects of all countries, especially in Italy. There is now in Italy, as there has been in France for a long time, a "Commission on Historical Monuments." This Commission propose to make such changes in the Duomo as will completely reëstablish the plans of the primitive style:

"O the barbarism of the archæologists, who do not understand that the sort of vegetation added by centuries to the first lines of a building gives it the charm of a living thing! Men have lived here since the architect built the house. They have prayed here. They have touched this building with their pious hands. . . . What people call a restoration only introduces the coldness of death, since in the place where life was palpitating, life which is always complex, incoherent, and too full, but which is life, . . . Will there ever be a time when the truth of the ironical words of Goethe will be admitted: 'The spirit of history, why, it is the spirit of these gentlemen'? Then it will be forbidden modern painters to give youth to a picture or to a frieze, as they have done in the Campo Santo of Pisa, to the irreparable damage of Orcagna and of Gozzoli: the old pictures of these noble masters have become *peinturlurages* of a horrible brilliancy. Then it will be forbidden the archæologists to clean a ruin."

Bourget goes, perhaps, too far: some restorations of monuments, discreetly made, have been very successful; but it is quite true that many others have been very unfortunate. It is equally true that it is childish to suppress in a church, for instance, where the primitive design is kept in the monument itself, pictures, altars, bronzes which have been added by each generation, and which form a sort of transition between the present and the past. To imagine that a church built in the Roman style must have nothing in it which is not Roman, has always seemed to me a mistake.

The pages written on the old Convent of Monte Oliveto are among the best in the book. The old abbey is preserved from complete ruin only by a decoration of Signorelli and of Sodoma which has given it the deserved honor of being classed among the national monuments. Only a few monks remain in it since the secularization of church property in Italy. Bourget found in the library a big folio, the treatise of Saint Irenæus against the Gnostics:

"Ah!" says he, "the marvellous psychology of the work, and how it throws in the shade all our poor essays. The pride of the mind, rising to the most sterile dilettanteism or to the most desperate revolt, the pride of life punished by the follies of sensualism—these are the two great maladies of the modern soul, its two great sins. Nihilism is the end of it now as it was then. This old convent, red among its black cypresses, which has lasted for several centuries, teaches us a possible remedy for these miseries, if it were only by telling us who they were that have inhabited it. The inscriptions which we read, here and there, on these walls tell us to believe first—that is to say, to humble ourselves before the unknowable Cause of the world, to accept the mystery which surrounds us as a mystery, to take as incomprehensible what is incomprehensible; but with the confidence that some day this sorrowful darkness will be lighted. Resignation with hope—is not this, amid all the contradictions of creeds and dogmas, the common ground of all piety!"

Here we have the true Bourget, the man who carries in his heart a deep wound, and who goes through life, looking at pictures, at palaces, at churches, as if all these were immaterial things, mere symbols, mere expressions of some inner thought. The traveller is as sad as the novelist; the novelist sees deceit at the bottom of every passion, and remorse and sorrow; the traveller looks with a weary eye on the world as if it were but "a fleeting show."

These 'Sensations' would have been better named 'Impressions,' because the whole tone of the author's reflections is idealistic. It is pessimistic also; and if a man is a pessimist in Italy, what will he be under our northern skies? On the whole, you leave this little volume with a curious mixture of pleasure and pain. The writer has won your pity more than your admiration; but is not "la pitié suprême" the end of all our philosophy?

Correspondence.

STATE AND NATIONAL POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your interesting article with the above title has furnished food for thought. Why is it that State politics have lost their interest and become absorbed in national? In the history of European countries, the hardest thing has been to get the people to give up their local prejudices and interests in favor of the central Government. Before the war, State politics had their full share of interest, while, as you point out, the State Governments are really of much more importance to the people than the Federal. I find the explanation in the completely colorless character of State politics as at present organized. All those things which deprive national politics of any real interest—the committee system, with its secrecy and want of responsibility; the absence of personal leadership; the scramble of private and local interests; and the rule of the lobby—are repeated with perfect exactitude in all the forty-odd States. But there is a further evil. In nearly, if not quite, every State the chief executive officials are elected separately from the Governor, which is fatal to anything like efficient administration. In some States, as in Massachusetts, this has resulted in setting up a number of commissions to do the work which properly belongs to the executive. In others it has produced pretty nearly an administrative deadlock. The result in either case is that the people know nothing about State affairs, or who is responsible for anything.

In the Federal Government, on the other hand, there is a chain of subordination from the President down to the day-laborer, with one man for each place. Not only, therefore, is the Federal Administration thereby rendered infinitely better than that of any State, but it appeals more powerfully to the imagination. Besides that, the President occupies one of the most conspicuous positions in the world; he is regarded as the personal head of this enormous machinery. For many years the possession of the offices was almost the sole basis of the Republican and Democratic parties, while now that this has been weakened by civil-service reform, and the names have little or no meaning, the most frantic efforts are put forth by politicians to keep the parties together, and especially by striving to drag the States at the tail of the national cart.

But just as the defects of government are really more dangerous in the States than at Washington, it is just in State politics that attempts at reform are also most needed. I have always maintained that the rule of the lobby is to be overcome at Washington by giving the Cabinet officers seats in Congress. Exactly the same thing for the same purpose is wanted in the State legislatures. But for this purpose also another thing must be brought about which already exists at Washington, and that is that the Governor should have the power of appointment of his "cabinet" instead of their being elected separately from him. The effect of this would be to do away with the government by commissions, just as there have been none, at least till very recently, under the Federal Government.

There is no hope in this direction from the State legislatures any more than from Congress, but I have for many years believed that a strong man who, as Governor, should go straight to the people, explain the difficulty, point out the remedy, and ask for their support, would receive it to an extent which would compel the Legislature to yield. Hence the intense interest which I feel in the present election. Gov. Russell, in his inaugural message, urged upon the Legislature action both as to the lobby and the commissions. That body has opposed him as far as it could, and paid no attention to him for the rest. I do not think he is as clearly convinced as myself as to the character of the necessary remedies, but at any rate he has shown the point of attack, and is following it up gallantly in the campaign. If he should run much ahead of his ticket, he will be almost compelled to move onward.

Meantime, the Republicans have imported numbers of the leading national politicians as speakers, have set up a candidate for Governor who will be as wax in their hands, and are making desperate efforts, in this purely local election, to swamp the State with the McKinley and Silver Bills. Massachusetts is, I believe, the first State which, by an investigating committee of the Legislature and by a message of the Governor, has attempted a formal resistance to the lobby, and—by the action of the Governor at least—to the government of the State by executive commissions. Therefore it is that I say deliberately that not only to this State, but to every State in the Union, it is of more importance who is elected Governor of Massachusetts this year than who is next year elected President of the United States. Gamaliel Bradford.

Boston, October 17, 1891.

THE LAW OF "VIS VIVA."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Herbert Spencer's 'Essays: Scientific, Political, and Speculative,' occurs the following sentence:

"Besides, the law of *vis viva* is plainly violated in the phenomena of growth, since this is not a reversible process."

The words "law of *vis viva*" seem from the context to be used as synonymous with "law of the conservation of energy." Does your reviewer really mean to assert that in the phenomena of growth we are presented with a *plain* violation of the law of the conservation of energy? Such an assertion would be so astonishing that I cannot refrain from asking for further explanation. L. M. Hoskins.

Madison, Wis., October 12, 1891.

[It ought not to be necessary to remind a professor of mechanics in a reputable university that the law of *vis viva* was familiar to mathematicians for much more than a century before the law of the conservation of energy was heard of. The one is a principle of molar mechanics, the other of general physics. The kinetical theory of mat-

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ter, which is intimately associated with, but is not involved in, the law of the conservation of energy, supposes that when the motions of molecules are taken account of, the law of *vis viva* is not violated in the action of viscosity, etc., where, considered as relating to *molar* motions, it is violated. As we referred to this, there is little excuse for saying that our context seems to confuse the two propositions. But since our correspondent is astonished at our saying that growth is an irreversible process, and therefore plainly violates the law of *vis viva*, and since, as professor of mechanics, he is familiar with the theorem that every action under a conservative system of forces is reversible, it appears that he would say that growth (including reproduction and the evolution of new species) is a reversible process in the sense in which the actions of viscosity, etc., are not reversible.

We said nothing about the law of the conservation of energy, which is the grandest discovery of science. Still, as a scientific generalization, it can only be a probable approximate statement, open to future possible correction. In its application to the ordinary transformations of forces, it has been pretty exactly verified. But as to what takes place within organized bodies, the positive evidence is unsatisfactory, and, in connection with the question of the will, we cannot feel sure the principle holds good without assuming a partisan position which would be unwise and unscientific. In an age when the axioms of geometry are put in doubt, it would not be astonishing to hear any physical principle challenged; but we repeat that our remark looked only to explaining the irreversibility of growth, in the same way in which inorganic irreversible processes are explained, by the application of probabilities and high numbers.—Ed. Nation.]

AN ISRAELITE ON THE GRIEVANCES OF ISRAEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the London *Anti-Jacobin* there is a paper—the second, I believe, of a series—by "An Israelitish Wanderer," on "The Grievances of the Jews in Russia," which I would commend to those who are willing to see the truth about the Jewish question. According to this Israelite, the grievances consist much more in the vexatious action of certain local officials than in the iniquity of the laws. However, he concludes thus:

"It is deplorable that public opinion in Russia should so largely approve of the expulsion of the Jews, even when it is done under cover of ordinances doubtfully applicable. But who can honestly say that it is unnatural? Beyond all doubt, economic causes, trade rivalry, business competition, are at the bottom of much of the hostility against the Hebrew. If a dozen Jewish traders settle in a town where a dozen Christians have been carrying on business, the whole trade will be transferred to the Jews within a measurable period of time. It may be argued that this is done to the advantage of the community at large; but yet it is not easy to persuade the worked-out Christians of that, or their neighbors of their own race and country. It takes a deal of delight in political economy to make up to a man for the loss of his bread; and we who are Jews should be the last to decry the sympathies of race or to deny that blood is thicker than water."

The whole paper confirms the view that this is a social and economic question, not a case of religious persecution, to which not the slightest allusion is made.—Yours faithfully,

Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, October 16, 1891.

JOHN ROGERS OF PURLEIGH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Whitmore's letter, published in the *Nation* of October 8, led me to inquire of the New York libraries for any of John Rogers's works, and I was rewarded by finding a copy in the library of the Union Theological Seminary, in the keeping of Mr. Gillette, who courteously permitted me to use it. The copy is, unfortunately, somewhat imperfect, the title and eight leaves being wanting; but the former owner had supplied them in manuscript. I was surprised to find that the titles given in Drake's Catalogue and in Lowndes's 'Manual' were different from the title as copied into this volume—*Ohel* or *Beth shemesh* being the heading to one of the divisions of the work. The true title is:

Dod or Chartran
The Beloved; or
The *Bridegroom* goeth forth for his *Bride*.
And looking out for his Japhejaphita, his
Faire One, or his *Church* adorned with double
Beauty and Excellence,
viz.: *Spirit* and *Truth* in these *latter days*—

and much more to the same effect.

The work, a quarto of 596 pages, is in fact nothing more than a "red-hot" Puritan diatribe, masquerading as a manual of church discipline; and its dedication to Cromwell and the epistle to the Commissioners of Parliament in Ireland prove the writer to have been a politician of no mean pretensions. Its composition was begun in Ireland about 1652, and completed in London, the second Epistle being dated from "My study, Thomas Apostles, 17th day of Zin, 2nd month of 1653." The style is that of a bitterly partisan pamphleteer, employing the well-nigh unintelligible jargon of the Puritans of that age of controversies, and crowded with puns and italics, metaphors, Biblical quotations, and references to all manner of things. "When you can take a turn or two in this Treatise," he wrote to Cromwell, "among such trees of Righteousness as are of the Lord's own planting (in his gardens) which will lead you with delight (if the Lord give but light) to James's (the Apostle) yea, beyond; till you come to make Sion-house for your Excellencies' habitation," etc. He must have thought it necessary to lighten the reading a bit, and so inserted some execrable poems by ministers in praise of the author and his treatise, calling them "some amber of Ingenuity dropping out in the following verses," etc. Even then Cromwell, if he "took a turn or two," must have been peculiarly constituted not to have been led astray; and at this very time was more anxious to reach Parliament House than Sion-house. This copy lacks the portrait that is mentioned by Lowndes.

It is in the autobiographical items that the book becomes of interest to us, but the language in which the writer relates his "experience" should be read, to appreciate the man's earnestness and uncouth expressions. He was a school-boy at Malden, in Essex, when he was first "rouzed" by the teaching of Fenner and Marshall. When aged ten, he slept in church, and was awakened by the minister's awful pictures of hell and its torments, and this produced a great effect upon his mind, incidentally leading him to evolve a recipe for keeping awake in church, which is duly recorded. His father, Nehemiah Rogers, who wrote on the parables, had some influence upon him, and he preached in Huntingtonshire when he was eighteen or nineteen. It was at this period that he seriously takes up Puritanism, disgusts his relatives and friends by his preciseness, is turned out of doors, with about three shillings and sixpence in his pocket, to "wander up and down a strange country"; applies to several colleges for admission as a poor scholar but is refused; is subject to dreams and has them carefully interpreted; is twice saved, of course by some special providence, from "self-murther"; drifts to Brudenel's house in Huntingtonshire, where he teaches school, as he also does in the free school at St. Neotts; and is sent for and settles in Essex. This is a bald account of what occupies many pages in his quarto, loaded with much that is odd and characteristic. The entire absence of dates makes it difficult to follow his narrative, especially as his "experience" ends with his call to Essex. We must depend upon other parts of the book for further information.

He went to Ireland, and was involved in some bitter controversies there. He appears to have made some enemies, one in particular, against whom he harbors a malignant spirit. He says, in metaphor, he embarked in a vessel (the church) with others, and hoisted the sail in a fair wind. But a storm arose, and "one vessel which was in our ship was full of stinking liquor, and yielded an ill savor"; and he wished they had thrown it overboard, but the storm hindered. The storm referred to the religious controversy of the time, in which the author took an active part, and, as a reward, was slandered in England and Ireland, but was countenanced by the commissioners sent out by Parliament. We give his own account as a sample of what the 596 pages are largely made up of:

"It is time to rescue my name and reputation from those *Bum-baylies* that have arrested, and roughly handled it, at the *Devil's suit* out of *malice* (which was like *rennet*, the *older*, the *stronger*). I have met with men like *Colledge Butlers*, who have set up apace upon *honest* men's names, and charged them to the *full* (with full maliced and foul-mouthed aspersions) which they will never wipe *off* again without I pay them (soundly) for it (which in time I may doe more fully, before good witness too). . . . So did some in Dublin, aspersing my person, and traducing the truth, possessing some people with *strange opinions* of me, as if I held many errors, who therefore looked upon me as an outlandish man, made up of strange fashions. . . . But one great one amongst them, that bad this spleen in his soul so passionately, that the smelling of it made his other parts to languish lamentably and apparently in the eyes of all; and to break out ulcerously in his language against me and others, with noisome words, which were of the worst savour."

So it may be concluded that Rogers did not lack the excitement of persecution: refusing to "dance after the pipes and adore the pride" of some great man—perhaps the same represented as the vessel—he was called a "poore, empty, silly fellow." Evidently Ireland became too hot for him, and he found a resting-place in London. As he states that he began the Treatise "about a yeare ago," *i. e.*, say in 1652, his Irish career must have been short, for it was in August, 1649, that he was directed to pay to Mrs. Washington a part of the Purleigh tithes. This may account for his mention of the "oppression of that Babylonian brazen yoke of tythes, which ought to be removed." The only mention of Purleigh I found was an "experience of John Osborne, of the Church at Purleigh."

Worthington C. Ford.

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Notes.

PART vi. of the 'New English Dictionary' has been ready for some months and will soon be here. We are informed that it will contain matter especially interesting to Americans under *Congregational*, *Congress*, *Conepatl*, *Colin*, *Cockle*, *etc.*

Additional announcements of Macmillan & Co.'s fall publications are 'The Last of the Giant-Killers,' by the Rev. J. C. Atkinson; 'Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,' by Prof. S. H. Butcher; 'The Inferno of Dante,' translated by A. J. Butler, and completing his version of the 'Divine Comedy'; 'English Literature at the Universities,' by J. Churton Collins; 'A History of Early English Literature,' by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke; Historical and Miscellaneous Essays, in two volumes, by Prof. E. A. Freeman; 'The Present State of the Fine Arts in France,' by P. G. Hamerton; 'The New Calendar of Great Men,' edited by Frederic Harrison; 'Battles, Bivouacs and Barracks,' by Archibald Forbes; 'The Government of Victoria (Australia),' by Prof. Edward Jenks; 'The Pioneers of Science,' by Oliver J. Lodge, with portrait and other illustrations; 'British Seas,' by W. Clark Russell; 'Historical Outlines of English Syntax,' by the Rev. R. Morris and Dr. L. Kellner; 'England and the English in the 18th Century,' by William Connor Sydney; 'Mahdiism and the Sudan,' by Major F. R. Wingate; and the novels of Thomas Love Peacock, edited in nine volumes by Richard Garnett.

The Duchess d'Uzès, whose devotion to the Orleanist cause made her the easy dupe of Boulanger, and also brought upon her a good deal of what must have been very annoying publicity, belongs to the class of noble dames who, like the Queen of Rumania, seek for occupation, or for fame, in the following of art. Such women are often clever; but they are far more apt to do "a little something" in several arts than something in any art. The Duchess d'Uzès paints, and composes music, and works in sculpture, quite to the satisfaction of her many friends. She "writes, too," under the pseudonym of "Manuela," and the new novel, 'Julien Masly,' which Ollendorff has just published, is from her pen. She wrote it (as she says in an interview) because she "wanted to try." Whatever the literary quality of the book may be, it will be sure to have in Paris a success of curiosity and of esteem.

A book which will be of a certain interest to readers in general, and of a special interest to some, has just appeared in M. L. Baudry de Saunier's 'Histoire générale de la Vélocipédie.' The author shows a good deal of research in his treatise, which conducts the reader from the rudimentary vehicle of Ozanam in the seventeenth century through the *célérifère* of the Revolution, and the *draisienne* of the Restoration, and the inventions of the Second Empire to the bicycle of to-day. The book contains many illustrations, reproduced from old engravings, both serious and jocose.

The correspondence of Eduard Mörike and Theodor Storm, edited by J. Baechtold, is announced by the publishing house of Göschen in Stuttgart.

The discussion of the authorship of the 'Imitation of Christ' seems to be as lively now as when it began, two hundred years ago. The latest English addition to the already enormous literature of the subject is Mr. Leonard A. Wheatley's 'Story of the Imitatio Christi,' one of the volumes of the "Book-Lovers' Library" (A. C. Armstrong & Son). The author, who is a staunch maintainer of the claims of Thomas à Kempis, here gives an expansion of the matter contained in his article "Kempis" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The question is now so far narrowed down that, though the hypotheses are numerous, the only important claimants of the authorship of the 'Imitation' are Thomas and the Chancellor Gerson. The arguments on both sides are fairly given in this beautifully printed little volume, in which we have also a list of the manuscripts of the 'Imitatio,' and a chrestomathy from the other works of Thomas, the resemblances pointed out being held to be an important factor in the critical problem. The theory supported by Michelet and others, that the 'Imitation' is an impersonal work, a collection of reflections composed by various writers, is not considered by Mr. Wheatley; it seems, however, to be worthy of examination so long as the absence of all distinct historical statements makes the reference of the book to any particular man difficult, if not impossible. As a popular introduction to the critical study of the 'Imitatio,' Mr. Wheatley's book is admirable.

A critical history of the canonical Hebrew literature from the modern scientific point of view has long been a desideratum. Kuenen has done the work admirably for the Hexateuch, but a general survey of the field has been lacking. This has now been accomplished by the Oxford professor, Canon S. R. Driver, in his 'Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament' (Charles Scribner's Sons), which forms the first volume of the "International Theological Library," edited by Professors Briggs and Salmond. Prof. Driver's critical position is that of the modern school (represented by Kuenen and Wellhausen), and he holds that critical conclusions do not touch either the authority or the inspiration of the Old Testament. His collection of materials is full enough to enable the reader to form a judgment for himself; and his method of presentation is so cautious and fair that one must respect his argument even when one cannot accept his result. His book should supersede all others in this field. The mechanical execution of the American edition is not good; the binding is inconvenient, and the English small print is not clear. The Hebrew print is excellent.

We have had occasion, within the past few months, to note the appearance of several manuals designed for use in the moral education of children, at home or in school, and now comes another, in many respects the best of them all, Prof. C. C. Everett's 'Ethics for Young People' (Ginn & Co.). With very little of formal division, the author devotes the best part of his forty-six chapters to the treatment of the smaller moralities, as they are called, remembering (what many writers forget) that these are of much greater concern to a child and his teacher than more generalized and abstract conceptions of duty. The first ten chapters are expository and historical, and of most value, perhaps, for the older heads, but what follows could be put with great advantage in the hands of children at the beginning of the reading habit. This does not mean that the style is lowered for the supposed needs of childish minds; it is throughout dignified and serious, while simple, and no more cast in the hortatory vein than was, perhaps, inevitable. Such chapter-headings as "Ambition," "Self-Respect," "Usefulness," "Good Temper," "Fun," "Kindness to Animals," "Industry," and "Temptations" (this last peculiarly excellent), will indicate the "lowliest duties" dwelt upon. The whole makes a book deserving of praise and use.

Mr. Henry Adams's position as an historian is so well established that the collection of his fugitive writings, 'Historical Essays' (Charles Scribners' Sons), is certain to be read with interest. They are nine in number, and appeared at intervals in various periodicals. Perhaps the one on the New York Gold Conspiracy attracted most attention at the time of its appearance, but there are others of more permanent importance. The essay on "Primitive Rights of Women" contains some suggestions of interest both to anthropologists and to social reformers; and that in which Mr. Adams attempts to trace the connection between the tortuous diplomacy of Lord John Russell at the outbreak of our civil war, the Declaration of Paris, and the formerly strong leaning of England to belligerent as against neutral rights, is very curious.

Mr. Theodore Child's papers on South America are too fresh in the minds of readers of *Harper's Monthly* to require detailed notice now that they have been collected into a sightly volume, 'The Spanish-American Republics' (Harpers). They are able to bear the test of consecutive reading, and show that, for the territory covered, Mr. Child is the most competent and keen-eyed observer we have had of late years. If they are deficient on any side, it is on that of the literary aspirations of the people, kept up in reverence of the old traditions, and the elaboration of social ceremonial common to Spanish-speaking races. Both of these matters, however, Mr. Child expressly and judiciously disclaims authority to speak upon, rightly saying that insight into them can be gained only by prolonged residence. In view of the fact that he visited only five or six of the Spanish-American republics, the title of his book could have been made more exact; as it is, some may possibly be misled by it.

'The Fine Arts,' by G. Baldwin Brown, Professor of Art in the University of Edinburgh (Charles Scribner's Sons), is one of the University Extension Manuals, and may be recommended as an eminently clear and sound brief statement of the aims and conditions of art, especially in the three forms of architecture, sculpture, and painting. It is likely to be really valuable to that large number of people who, while unable to give much time to the study of art, are yet interested in the subject and would like some guide to the better understanding of the artist's aims and ways of feeling, and some explanation of the main conventions of art. It is necessarily brief and not carried far in detail, but is admirable as far as it goes. Particularly good are chapter ii. of part ii., on "The Work of Art as Significant," in which the ultra theories of the apostles of art for art's sake are discussed, and chapter i. of part iii., on "Architectural Beauty in Relation to Construction." On both of these points the author's views seem to us to be exceedingly moderate and just.

A second, enlarged edition has just appeared of a work useful both from a literary and from a linguistic point of view, viz., Prof. Augusto Romizi's 'Paralleli Letterari tra Poeti Greci, Latini e Italiani' (Leghorn). It is in thirty-seven chapters.

The British Museum reports particularly rich acquisitions of Bibles during 1890. Among them was a Frankfort Bible of 1534, containing the woodcuts of which those in the Coverdale Bible of 1535 were an imitation. Notable also was a Madagascar Bible, printed in Malagasy in 1830-35 at Antananarivo. The rarity of perfect copies of this Bible arises from the fact that the impression was destroyed in the persecution, while the few copies which survived were mostly cut into small portions for the sake of concealment. Another treasure added during the same year is the "Sex quam

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elegantissimæ epistolæ," letters which passed between Pope Sixtus IV. and the Republic of Venice in 1482-83. Edited in England by an Italian priest, they were printed by Caxton in 1483. By this acquisition "the number of Caxton's known publications not to be found in his own country has been reduced to two."

There has recently been an interesting find of Luther MSS. in the town library of Zwickau, Saxony. Among them are numerous sermons preached as early as 1512 and reported by his friends. This was when his views upon justification by faith were beginning to take shape, and they are said to show very vividly the workings of his mind and conscience at that time. Earlier than these are notes in Luther's own handwriting on Augustine, Peter Lombard, and Tauler. There are also notes of a course of lectures delivered at Wittenberg in 1516 on the Book of Judges. Some of these documents have already been published.

From an article in the Milan *Perseveranza* of Sept. 26 it appears that the introduction of compulsory gymnastics in the secondary schools has not been attended with success, and that medical certificates of disability are readily obtained in too great numbers. It occurs to the editor that the element of amusement and recreation must be sought after, and he holds up the English games and sports for emulation, just as the French reformers are now doing. He would thus supplement the gymnastics, not abolish them.

It is significant of the professional recognition which women physicians have attained to in Great Britain, that, for the first time since its inception in 1874, an account of the London School of Medicine for Women appears in the student's number of the *Lancet*, for the current season of 1891-92. This leading but conservative medical journal describes this admirable school for women in its list of "those metropolitan schools that have a complete curriculum, and give a medical education capable of enabling their students to present themselves to all the examining boards that give licenses to practise medicine and surgery."

Another magazine is, together with the *Overland Monthly*, to afford expression to the writers of the Pacific Coast. The *Californian Illustrated Magazine* is published in Los Angeles. For its illustrations it depends wholly (so far) on "process" cuts. The most readable article is that on the Mount Wilson Railroad, a very great enterprise by which the astronomer and the tourist will both profit. Dr. Walter Lindley begins a series of articles on the climatic conditions of the Pacific Coast. We must also mention, for text and illustrations, the paper on the Desert Sea—the Salton Sea in the Colorado Desert—which was the sensation of the day a few months ago. A map and photographic views greatly aid the narrative.

—The current issue of the *American Journal of Science* contains in full the highly suggestive Presidential address delivered before the American Association, in August last, by Dr. George L. Goodale of Harvard, on "Some of the Possibilities of Economic Botany." Dr. Goodale had lately returned from the meeting of the Australian Association for the Advancement of Science at Christchurch, New Zealand, at which he represented the American body, and his preliminary remarks dealt with this interesting gathering. He next compared the total number of species of plants known to botanical science or probably existing—upwards of 110,000—with that of plants and trees either cultivated for their multifarious properties or utilized in their wild state; the latter being less than one per cent. of the former. The question arises whether there is any probability of important additions to our short list of vegetables, fruits, cereals, fibres, dyes, flavors, drugs. Prof. Goodale traced the history of our present cereals, and estimated that if a universal blight should overtake them, and them alone, our experiment stations could, from those left untouched, develop equivalents in half a century; and he named the wild rice of the lakes and some seashore grains as already worthy of experiment. Taking up vegetables, he enumerated the clearly distinguishable varieties of our commonest, which are surprisingly many, and quoted from Vilmorin a most striking illustration, in the case of the cabbage, of the range of variation and obscurity of indications as to the available possibilities of the wild plant. The progress of the tomato from the highlands of Peru furnished another instance. From Japan Prof. Goodale thinks we may borrow certain beans and roots and salads. What he had to say as to fruits was most captivating in the hope held out of eventually raising seedless berries and grapes, coreless apples and pears, stoneless cherries and plums, propagated by bud division as in the case of bananas and pineapples. In this department, too, Japan will help us out. The address closed with an indication of the way in which promising plants should be systematically investigated under exhaustive conditions, in the interest of commercial botany. Dr. Goodale bespeaks the communication of "any facts of interest regarding the local or exceptional uses of any plants, especially of those wild plants which have not yet found a place in the economic lists."

—The interest in Celtic folk-lore seems to be on the increase, and, thanks to the researches of H. Zimmer, a firm footing has been gained for the study of certain cycles. One of these is the Finn cycle, and a number of interesting tales clustering around it have recently been published in the third volume of the Argyllshire Series of 'Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition,' edited by Lord Archibald Campbell (London: David Nutt). The first volume of the series contained 'Craignish Tales,' by the same collector, and the second was 'Folk and Hero Tales,' by the Rev. D. MacInness (one of the publications of the English Folk-Lore Society). In these volumes the original Gaelic text is given with a translation and notes by Mr. Alfred Nutt. The stories themselves are extremely interesting, and those relating to Finn have a certain epic grandeur. As we have already remarked apropos of Celtic popular tales, they afford the usual themes found in the tales of other countries, but the connection is so loose and irregular that few close parallels can be given. An interesting example is found in the present collection, p. 145: "A Tale of the Son of the King of Ireland and the Daughter of the King of the Red Cap." The theme is the quest of the Swan-Maiden Bride, with which is combined the kiss taboo, etc., but the arrangement of the episodes makes it impossible to cite any close parallel. So also with (p. 222) "A Tale of the Son of the Knight of the Green Vesture," in which occurs the theme of the Grimm story of "Donkey Cabbages." Mr. Nutt's introduction is a sensible view of the various theories of folk-lore, and the collector has appended many valuable notes.

—The results of recent researches in Bible lands are so widely scattered in books and periodicals, and so often inaccessible to the general reader, that Mr. George St. Clair must be considered to have done the public a great service in collecting them in his 'Buried Cities and Bible Countries' (Thomas Whittaker). As lecturer for the Palestine Exploration Fund, he has had special opportunity and occasion to get correct information, and his book has the great recommendation of being trustworthy in its statements of recent discoveries. The greater part of his space is devoted to Palestine, though he has much to say of Egypt and Mesopotamia. The reader will here find a good account of the extraordinary discovery of mummies in 1881, of the excavations of Mr. Petrie and M. Naville, of the astonishing revelation made by the El-Amarna cuneiform tablets found in 1887, of the work done in Jerusalem by Warren and his assistants, of the geographical surveys of Conder, Merrill, and others, of Mr. Petrie's investigation of the site of ancient Lachish (1890), and of the explorations in Babylonia and Assyria. This last is the least satisfactory portion of the book, omitting, for example, the mention of the Cyrus tablets, which throw such a flood of light on the character and policy of that monarch. Mr. St. Clair holds to the literal historical accuracy of the narratives in Genesis and Exodus, and assumes a good deal that the historical facts do not warrant; his main interest in the discoveries he details is based on the illustrations they give of the Bible history, and these illustrations he is everywhere concerned to bring out. He assumes Joseph's Egyptian career and the realness of the oppression, but he gives no Egyptian evidence in their favor. This feature of the book does not, however, diminish the value of its archæological information; it is undoubtedly one of the most interesting and useful of recent publications in this field. It may be mentioned that the author holds that Amenhotep IV., the last king of the eighteenth dynasty (who is supposed to have been under Semitic influence), was the last favorer of the Hebrews, and that the "new King who knew not Joseph" was Ramses I., the first king of the nineteenth dynasty. Good lists of authorities are appended to the various sections, and the printing (done in Edinburgh) is excellent.

—It is very good news that M. Alphonse Daudet, whose ill-health during the last few years has given his friends cause for grave apprehensions, has come back to Paris after a long season in the country, full of literary activity. He is busy in finishing two plays, the title of one of which, 'Soutien de Famille,' gives a clear glimpse at its character. The other is a pastoral, of the sort of 'L'Arlésienne,' "sans farandoles, mais toute de fièvre," and, as Daudet says, "en demi-larmes." The pastoral will be given at the Odéon. As to the other play, the only thing settled about it is that it will not be offered to the Comédie-Française, nor played there. Since 'L'Arlésienne' was refused at that theatre, Daudet has sworn that no other of his pieces shall ever be represented there, and he has taken toward the Rue Richelieu the same attitude that he maintains toward the French Academy. Besides these plays, he has just finished a short novel, of a couple of hundred pages only, the theme of which, "enfants dans le divorce," seems to forebode more heart-wringing of the sort that was accomplished by 'Jack.' There is also another novel nearly done, 'La Caravane,' a long work, which is said to have given Daudet much trouble in the making. Still another book, which was announced several years ago under the title of 'Mes Douleurs,' is yet upon the stocks with its name changed to 'La Doulou.' Daudet says that he works upon this every day, since he suffers every day, but that he probably will never publish

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it. Perhaps it is better that the world shall miss the poignant spectacle of the sufferings of a keen mind and a good heart.

—The controversy excited some ten years ago by the publication of Prof. Bugge's studies on the origin of the Norse sagas shows no signs of abatement. Most of the older Germanists still reject the views of the Norwegian professor, and the venerable but fiery Dr. Sepp of Munich does not hesitate to denounce this attack on the genuineness and integrity of the Edda as "an outrage on the national religion," and a sacrilege sufficient to kindle the wrath of the manes of Jacob Grimm. The younger generation of Germanists discuss the difficult questions involved more calmly and dispassionately, and are inclined, for the most part, to accept Bugge's conclusions. At any rate, they have the immense advantage of perceiving that scientific problems cannot be solved, but are rather obscured, by vituperation. Among the latest and most important contributions to the subject are Dr. Mogk's 'Abriss der deutschen Mythologie,' a portion of which has already appeared in Paul's 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie' (vol. i., pp. 982, sqq.), and E. H. Meyer's 'Völuspá' (Berlin: Meyer & Müller, 1889, pp. 298), and 'Die eddische Kosmogonie' (Freiburg i. B.: Mohr, 1891, pp. 118). Meyer maintains that the 'Völuspá' is of foreign origin, and paraphrases in the popular style of the sagas the theological notions current in the Middle Ages concerning the genesis of things, and that it was written by the Icelander Sæmund early in the twelfth century. Of course he does not affirm that these ideas concerning the creation of the world and its final destruction are originally and exclusively Christian: they are common to the traditions and speculations of all the nations of antiquity, and can be traced back to the Assyro-Babylonian cosmogony as their primitive source. All that he asserts is, that they came into Iceland as the result of the Christianization of that country through the school at Oddi, of which Sæmund was the head and through which Snorri Sturluson borrowed the cosmogonic and mythological conceptions embodied in the so-called Snorra Edda. Thus, for example, he regards the Norse trinity of Odhin, Vili, and Vé as an imitation of the Christian Trinity of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, and thinks that this is evident from the etymology of the names and the mutual relations of the three persons.

MACHIAVELLI'S PRINCE.

Il Principe. By Niccolò Machiavelli. Edited by L. Arthur Burd, with an introduction by Lord Acton. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891. Pp. xl, 403.

It is with equal pleasure and surprise that we welcome this admirable edition of a great Italian classic from the hands of an Englishman hitherto unknown to us; for English scholars are still somewhat negligent of Continental masterpieces, often devoting their critical talents to the study of a third-rate Latin or Greek author rather than to a first-rate modern. But Mr. Burd's edition of 'The Prince' is not only remarkable as being the work of an Englishman, but as being the edition for which the world has been looking for three hundred and fifty years. He has at last made it possible for any reader to form an unprejudiced opinion of the meaning of Machiavelli's famous treatise. With all the patience, industry, and research of a German, he has collected his materials, and he has set them forth with a clearness and terseness to which but few Germans attain. The service which he has thus rendered must be as permanent as is the interest of 'The Prince' itself, for he has at last moored to the solid rock of fact that work which has, during ten generations, been drifting to and fro on the conflicting tides of opinion. How important this achievement is hardly needs to be explained here, because every one who knows anything about Machiavelli knows that, as the ablest exponent of one of the great theories of political authority and ethics, he has not been and cannot be superseded. Machiavellianism is an element which human society has not eliminated, a force whose working can be as clearly traced to-day as in the days of the Borgias.

Regarded as an artistic creation, Machiavelli's Prince has had no peer in modern literature except Goethe's Mephistopheles; the former is the personification of the selfishness of a State, as the latter is of the selfishness of the individual who denies all obligations to God or man, and seeks only to gratify his passions, whatever may be the injury he inflicts on his fellows. But Machiavelli had no poet's creation in view when he drew his portrait of the Prince; his aim was intensely practical, and he trusted to observation, to facts, not to sentiment or imagination, for the substance of his work. Seeing Italy harassed by a multitude of petty tyrants, and constantly overrun by foreign invaders, he believed that her only hope lay in the expulsion of the "barbarians," and in the gradual consolidation of her distracted provinces under the sway of one ruler. But what sort of a man must such a ruler be? What are the means by which princes acquire and hold States? These are the questions Machiavelli asks himself, and to find answers to them he examines the actual methods and characteristics of the princes of his own and former ages. He discovers that not devotion to the common weal, but to self-interest, not justice but success, not right but might, are the great forces and considerations which determine the actions of monarchs. Therefore, a prince who would succeed must excel his rivals in the employment of craft or cruelty; morals no more concern him than they concern a general in battle; his one duty is to conquer, and, if he conquer, victory excuses all his crimes. Indeed, the Prince (or State) cannot truly be said to commit crimes, being a law unto himself. "I do not describe what ought to be, but what is," Machiavelli would retort to his critics. "You may prefer a world which you would call more moral, but this is the world in which we are placed, these are the tricks and forces which dominate it. It is as idle to complain that a monster like Alexander VI. occupies the chair of St. Peter, or that ruffians like the Sforza lord it over Lombardy, as that water runs down hill. The facts are as I have stated them: strength prevails over weakness though the strong man be wicked and the weak be virtuous; shrewdness and guile impose upon simplicity; it is not a question as to which is ideally worthier, but as to which succeeds."

The best proof of the accuracy of Machiavelli's portrait is the storm of abuse that it provoked. He had blabbed an open secret, and from both princes and peoples came an indignant denial. The former protested that they were not the villains, the latter that they were not the fools, he painted them. They branded him as a blasphemer of human nature, as a cynic and reprobate who imputed to mankind the basest motives. His enemies, not content with assailing his maxims, loaded his memory with evil insinuations that he was personally a depraved man—as if to imply that his horrid opinions were the natural outcome of his life. Even his apologists dared not defend the literal interpretation of his treatise, but they insisted that it had a hidden meaning which justified it and exonerated its author. Cardinal Pole, one of the earliest and most virulent of Machiavelli's critics, states that when he attacked 'The Prince' before Machiavelli's fellow-citizens, they always replied,

"as they said M. himself did, . . . that in the book he had regard not only to his own feeling, but also to that of the man to whom he was writing. Now this man [Lorenzo di Piero de' Medici] he knew for a tyrant by nature, and so he put in things which could not fail to please such a nature exceedingly. Still he, like every other writer on the education of a king or prince, was of opinion, and experience verifies it, that these very things would, if carried out in practice, make the tyrant's reign a short one. Now this was exactly what he desired, for his heart was all afire with hatred of the Prince to whom he wrote, and he had no other object in the book except this—by writing to a tyrant things which a tyrant loves, to hurl him, if possible, headlong to self-destruction."

Another school of defenders maintained that Machiavelli did not so much aim at hastening the downfall of princes by instigating them, by his disingenuous counsel, to commit fatal blunders, as to put in the minds of the people a knowledge of the cunning by which they had been duped, in order that they might thenceforth be duped no more. This latter, which we may call the "antidote theory," since, according to its advocates, Machiavelli, in describing the effects of political poisons, suggested their remedy, has been, on the whole, the most popular of all the various apologies; and it is worth recording that the Italians, during their long struggle to oust the Austrian "barbarian" and to shake off their native despots during the present century, quoted, after Dante, none of their bygone great men more often than Machiavelli. But, on the other hand, the army of his enemies, large from the first, have kept up a persistent fire down to the present time, varying their points of attack and adopting different weapons, but holding fast to their detestation of "Old Nick." To abominate him and his doctrines has long been an easy way to win reputation for superior virtue; but might it not be cited as evidence of the skill with which Machiavelli dissected human nature? It is significant that the Company of Jesus, which has persistently followed the teachings of 'The Prince,' and that Frederick the Great, a Machiavellian monarch if ever there was one, have been among the loudest to denounce and deny their master. The attitude of the world towards Machiavelli reminds us of that of a camp meeting at which the revivalist preacher requests those of his hearers who hate the devil to stand up—and all rise.

But this is not the place in which to record and examine the great mass of prejudices and opinions which have, for three centuries and a half, prevented 'The Prince' from being dispassionately viewed; merely to indicate them will suffice for our present purpose, which is to express deep satisfaction that, with the publication of Mr. Burd's book, any excuse for misconceptions in the future is removed. He indulges in no empty or Pharisaical abuse, he does not hold up his hands in holy horror, nor believe that by declaring that he detests lying and killing he has "answered" Machiavelli. Wisely leaving the Ten Commandments to defend themselves, he aims simply at giving the reader every possible help to understand exactly what Machiavelli meant, and he does this by furnishing ample historical information about the period in which the Florentine

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Secretary lived, and by elucidating 'The Prince' with quotations from Machiavelli's other works. Thus we are able to see how much of Machiavelli's doctrine was common to his time, and how much was peculiar to himself, and to estimate his work as a whole, instead of in fragments. Hitherto, it has been too much the habit of critics to pick out a few obnoxious sentences and to direct their whole attention to them; Mr. Burd makes it possible for any one to know which opinions Machiavelli elsewhere qualified, which he abandoned, and which he held to the end of his life.

Instead of writing a formal biographical and critical introduction, Mr. Burd limits himself to a brief statement of the purpose of 'The Prince,' of the conditions under which it was produced, and of the attitude of early critics towards it; then, in a copious Historical Abstract, he sets down year by year the principal events in Italian politics and in Machiavelli's personal fortunes, between 1469 and 1527. By this last plan the reader can turn quickly from any passage in 'The Prince,' in which contemporary affairs are alluded to, and find a succinct narrative of them; this is all the more important because Machiavelli draws from the current affairs of his day most of the illustrations for his doctrines. Mr. Burd's knowledge of the history of Medicean Italy will best be appreciated by those who have themselves studied the Renaissance most thoroughly. It is rare indeed to come upon so comprehensive a summary of any epoch as that on pp. 23-26, in which the condition of decaying Italy is described with great force and compactness; and many of the notes, as, for instance, the short prefaces to chaps. 3 and 18, and the note on Cæsar Borgia (pp. 214-217), are models of what the best editorial work should be.

The key to Mr. Burd's own attitude towards 'The Prince,' and, as we firmly believe, the true one, is contained in the following passage (p. 16):

"In modern times hardly any science of which the subject-matter is man, viewed under one aspect singled out from many others, has been brave enough to neglect the other points of view from which man may be regarded. Political Economy is the classical exception; and it is characteristic of modern feeling that there should be so much opposition to those who choose to regard men solely as creatures under the laws of supply and demand; and the belief that to disregard moral causes which influence even commercial action vitiates the conclusions of political economists, is in a measure justified. The same holds good of political science: any attempt to reckon without the sentiments and permanent moral convictions of men is doomed beforehand to failure. But there may be a moral interest in eliminating one side of human nature, the most capricious and the least subject to law, in order to trace the operations of cause and effect, assuming that no disturbing agencies will be present.

"Machiavelli, in 'The Prince,' has eliminated sentiment and morality, though the interest to him was not merely scientific, but practical also; he did so partly deliberately and partly without any distinct consciousness that he was mutilating human nature. But whatever considerations determined the method he employed, he followed it without swerving, consistently and logically. . . . Whether by thus considering only one aspect of human nature at a time he has vitiated his own conclusions, or whether this is rather the condition upon which alone he could solve the problem which he set himself, may be doubted; but it would be unfair in any case to argue from his silence and his omissions that he had lost the consciousness that man might be regarded as a moral being; he merely declined to allow moral considerations to interfere, as he believed they did, with the logical discussion of the subject in hand."

Readers who are acquainted with Lord Acton's great erudition and ability, and who have cause to regret that he so seldom displays them in print, will turn at once to his Introduction, and will probably be disappointed by it, at least at first. For instead of its being a criticism by Lord Acton upon so remarkable a personage as Machiavelli, it is rather a collection, gathered from the most various and recondite sources, of the opinions which philosophers, politicians, and theologians have expressed on Machiavelli and Machiavellianism during the past three hundred years. Only the cement in which these mosaic-bits are embedded is Lord Acton's own, but from the design he has wrought, and from his brief comments, we can infer what his own views are. He would maintain that Machiavelli's account of the practice of rulers and states is in the main correct; that, whatever may be the talk about moral considerations, self-interest really determines international policy, and that the cases in which an unselfish motive has prevailed are few compared with the habitual employment of Machiavellian principles.

On the surface we are easy-going optimists, whatever may be our inmost genuine convictions, and either we strive not to see the evil forces by which we are hemmed in, or we call them by pleasant names. We assume that many of the enormities which shock us as we look back upon the past, perished with the past. But it is better to know the truth than to dream in a Fool's Paradise, for, until we have measured an abuse, we cannot successfully combat it. And Machiavelli's 'Prince' is one of the books which should be read and pondered by every man who would see some of the aims and methods that have characterized the dealings of states and rulers since the beginning of history. The form which Machiavellianism assumes may vary, but its essence remains fixed. Europe to day is as much under the sway of selfish principles as Italy was at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The belief that might makes right, that there is no appeal from brute force, that the State can do no wrong, that success justifies all measures, and that weakness is the only failure, the only unpardonable sin—these are so easily deducible from the current practice of European nations that we need do no more than mention them; and these are true Machiavellian doctrines. We are shocked at the name, but not at the thing. Metternich, Louis Napoleon, Bismarck, Beaconsfield—be the result of their policy good or bad—were all practical disciples of the Florentine master of statecraft; and as evidence that under a republican form of government human nature does not change, we need only cite the success of such vulgar and clumsy Machiavellians as Butler, Blaine, and Quay. Their success is the best evidence that our public would be benefited by reading 'The Prince,' in which are set down, as in a scientific treatise, the signs by which the political charlatan can be detected and so guarded against. Of course, Machiavelli no more invented the traits which are called by his name than Goethe invented those traits in human nature which he personified in Mephistopheles; to have analyzed and described them as he has done assures for him and his book the permanent attention of students of politics and ethics. "Religion, progressive enlightenment, the perpetual vigilance of public opinion, have not," says Lord Acton, "reduced his empire, or disproved the justice of his conception of mankind. He obtains a new lease of authority from causes that are still prevailing, and from doctrines that are apparent in politics, philosophy, and science. Without sparing censure or employing for comparison the grosser symptoms of the age, we find him near our common level, and perceive that he is not a vanishing type, but a constant and contemporary influence."

ROBINSON'S CAST CATALOGUE.

Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Catalogue of Casts. Part III. Greek and Roman Sculpture. By Edward Robinson, Curator of Classical Antiquities. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

Among the many advantages which large collections of casts afford to the study of ancient art, one of the most conspicuous is the opportunity they offer for the compilation of scientific catalogues, embodying in chronological sequence the principal monuments of Oriental, Greek, and Greco-Roman sculpture. Such books or manuals are superior to systematic histories of art in one particular, namely: they deal almost exclusively with facts and leave very little room for theories. When antiquated, they require supplements, but do not need to be completely rewritten, as should be, for instance, Overbeck's 'Geschichte der Plastik,' the third edition of which (1881) is now so strikingly out of date. Archæological literature already possesses several good catalogues of that kind by Friederichs, Hettner, Kekulé, Blümner, Michaelis, and others; the first and the last, describing the large collections at Berlin and at Strassburg, are certainly the most useful and most widely known. Friederichs's great work, first issued in 1868, was re-edited in 1885 by Wolters; the main defect of this new edition is lack of condensation, due to a somewhat superstitious regard for the original. The catalogue we owe to Prof. Michaelis (1887) is much shorter, but superior to the Berlin one by reason of the judicious selection of monuments all of real importance to the antiquarian; while the Berlin collection, like that in the École des Beaux-Arts at Paris, contains many casts which chance alone has brought together.

It is, indeed, an advantage for such collections to have been formed at a recent date, under the direction of an experienced archæologist; so in this particular the Boston Museum of Arts, begun in 1876, is inferior to none excepting the museums of Berlin, Paris, Strassburg, and perhaps Dresden. It now, moreover, enjoys the benefit of having a catalogue perfectly adequate to the requirements of modern science, more detailed than Michaelis's 'Verzeichniss,' less encumbered than Friederichs's 'Gypsabgüsse,' and as readable as it is reliable. The first edition, published in 1887, contained 414 numbers, the present one describes no less than 800, against 2,270 in Berlin, and 1,470 in Strassburg. Mr. Robinson, the curator of classical antiquities, has done his work very thoroughly; his descriptions of the most important items, such as the Lycian marbles, the sculptures from Olympia and the Parthenon, the Niobides, the Laocoön, etc., are written in a quiet and sober tone, without the least touch of that unscientific *pathos* which Friederichs sometimes, and more recent archæologists too often, indulge in. The various information relating to each object is given in a most practical way—to begin with, the subject treated and the place where the original is preserved; then, in smaller type, the material (bronze, marble, etc.), the history of the work and mention of the collections it has belonged to, the restorations, and, finally, the publications, including only the more important references to archæological literature.

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As the Boston collection is expected to increase very rapidly, the Catalogue will have to be reissued more than once. We hope that the following observations may prove of some use both to the Catalogue and to the Museum.

To begin with the Museum. The study of ancient Attic art is now based principally on the statues, in marble and in calcareous stone, which have lately come to light on the Acropolis. Casts of these statues do not exist, nor will the Greek Ephoria ever allow any to be taken, for fear of injuring the delicate coloring which adds so much to their value. But, on the other hand, a collection of casts cannot fairly represent the state of our knowledge without these most important relics of the old Attic and insular schools. The problem can be solved only by securing good copies of the statues which it is not possible to mould. Such copies, made under the superintendence of archæologists, would be quite the equivalents of casts, and far superior for study to any photographs, colored or not. It would be well worthy of the Boston Museum and of its generous supporters to take the initiative in having them made in Athens, while the members of the American School would certainly be glad to superintend and to control the work.

The second desideratum we should indicate refers to the sarcophagi. All collections of casts, not excepting that at Berlin, contain but very few samples of these sculptures, the high value of which is only just being recognized in the light of the admirable reliefs discovered at Sidon. These, of course, with their charming polychromy, cannot be cast, but must be copied—a task which a most distinguished sculptor would not find unworthy of his talent. But there are at least one hundred sarcophagi which can be cast without any inconvenience and at a comparatively small cost; a collection of them would be of the greatest interest and would form a prominent feature in a museum.

One more series would be, in our opinion, very profitable to students and to the art-loving public in general. It should comprise the minor bronze statues, which have not as yet received due attention in any museum. The identification and classification of such statuettes is now very difficult, owing to the small number of them which have been published and brought together. A set of two or three hundred casts, painted in dark green or blue, as they are in the Musée of Saint-Germain-en-Laye, could easily be collected in Paris, Berlin, and Naples; it would be the first step towards a much required *corpus*. Unfortunately, the British Museum allows no casts of its bronzes to be taken, but the day is certainly not far distant when that most absurd prohibition will be removed. A collection such as could be made within a few years would be quite unique, and, when published with the proper care, might illustrate many a dark corner in the history of ancient sculpture.

With regard to Mr. Robinson's Catalogue, our chief criticisms must bear on the references given at the beginning of every article. These references are introduced by the word *published*, which is used in a too broad sense. To have a monument engraved is one thing, and to describe or mention it is another, and these two kinds of "publications" should never be confused. Take, for instance, No. 540, the statuette of Aphrodite in the Museum at Argos. No engraving or photograph of it exists, so far as we know, but you nevertheless read in the Catalogue: "*Published*: Conze, in the *Arch. Anz.*; Milchhoefer, in the *Mitth. des Inst.*," etc., passages which, when examined, are found to contain only brief descriptions of the work. Thus a statue may very well be inedited and deserving publication (*stricto sensu*) without the reader of Mr. Robinson's Catalogue being able to ascertain that fact.

The reference should always be divided under two heads—(1) Engr (avings) and (2) Descr (iptions) or ment (ions). Again, we think that the corresponding numbers of the Friederichs-Wolters 'Gypsabgüsse' ought not to be indicated, as they are, at the end of the reference, but at the beginning, not *in extenso*, but in an abridged form, such as "F. W. No. 191." The 'Gypsabgüsse' giving the literature up to 1885 with sufficient completeness, the author of a more recent catalogue can, while referring to the German work, dispense with restating the greater number of old quotations, and lay more stress on recent publications which have appeared since 1885. Making a choice among many references is a difficult task, and requires much personal knowledge of antiquarian literature. Mr. Robinson has often done this very well, but in a few instances we cannot find that he has made the better choice. Whenever a photograph has been published in book form, it must be quoted preferably to all engravings. For instance, in the case of the Apollo of the Belvedere (No. 652), we should have referred to *Bollettino Commiss. Municipale di Roma*, 1889, plates xiii.-xiv., and not to Visconti, Müller-Wieseler, or Mitchell. Again, the only heliograph of the Melian Venus in conformity with its present appearance has been published in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, May 1, 1890, and should have been quoted under No. 539. In the same paragraph, Mr. Robinson refers to Goeler's book on the Venus, wherein he does rightly, but he should not have mentioned Ravaisson's pamphlet (1871), which has no permanent value, and contains many errors now acknowledged by the author himself. Haeberlin's 'Studien zur Aphrodite von Melos' (Goettingen, 1889) might have been quoted instead as a résumé of recent work on the subject. The references given to the Hermes of Olympia (No. 516) are now antiquated, all previous publications having been superseded by the splendid folio dedicated to Mr. Gladstone by Rhomaïdes (Athens, 1890), and we should have expected to find the title of one at least of the recent papers relating to the replica of the Hermes.

As a rule, it should be borne in mind that the true object of a reference is to refer the reader to a book or periodical where the questions bearing on some work of art are discussed at full length; therefore we think it proper to avoid quoting second and third-hand manuals, which can give but a few lines to the study of a single statue, and to mention instead original papers in magazines or special monographs. *A fortiori*, it is worse than useless to quote bad or rare works such as the 'Galleria Giustiniana' (No. 173), Laborde's 'Athènes' (No. 24), Knight's 'Arch of Titus' (No. 727), when plenty of other and better references are at hand. An archæologist, before quoting a book or an engraving, ought always to reflect if he would himself think of taking them up in case he needed further information. It is from this point of view that Mr. Robinson's references seem sometimes open to criticism.

Minor shortcomings in the Catalogue are very scarce. On p. 48, the lion gate of Mycenæ is said to be derived from a Phrygian model; the reverse is infinitely more probable. On p. 118, we should have called in question the genuineness of the Talleyrand Jupiter, or at least indicated that it has been largely remodelled. On p. 303, we remark that Mr. Robinson repeats the statement according to which the Apollo of the Belvedere was discovered at Antium, which has lately been proved to be erroneous. Pp. 324–327, the terracottas "formerly in the Campana collection" are now in the Louvre. On p. 50 and elsewhere, the periodical issued by the French School at Athens is styled 'Bulletin de *la* Correspondance Hellénique.' All these defects are very slight and easy to correct; they by no means impair the merit and usefulness of a work which will be gratefully received by all archæologists, by whom trustworthy books of reference are greatly needed.

Charles Grandison Finney. By G. Frederick Wright, D.D., LL.D., Professor in Oberlin Theological Seminary, Ohio. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

It means either a wide inclusion or a scarcity of good material, when a man of Finney's limited influence and imperfect character and training is one of those selected to figure in a series of American religious leaders. There could be no better evidence of his secular antecedents than his name, Charles Grandison. Pious Christian parents in Connecticut in 1792 would never have named a child after the hero of Richardson's novel. The story of his conversion is quite as remarkable as that of any of the more famous saints, and has much psychological interest, the visions that were palpable to him as things of touch being non-existent for others present. It is an interesting and instructive feature of Prof. Wright's treatment of Finney's conversion that he is disposed to minimize its supernatural character, of which Finney, in his autobiographical 'Memoirs,' made all he could. In several instances Prof. Wright finds himself obliged to check these 'Memoirs,' finding in them a good deal of reflection backward from the opinions of Finney's later life. He was already twenty-nine at the time of his conversion, and, though a leader of the choir, was thought to be past praying for by the minister. The morning after his conversion he turned away a client whose cause he had agreed to maintain in court, saying that "he had a retainer from the Lord Jesus to plead his cause" instead; but this bad beginning was not significant of any general lack of moral earnestness in his subsequent career.

His first successes as a revivalist were remarkable, and the account of them will have in it a surprise for many in the amount of opposition they aroused. Particulars of his method, which are now generally supposed to have descended from an immemorial antiquity, were regarded as startling innovations. Out of the criticism and opposition there came a convention at New Lebanon, N. Y., Prof. Wright's account of which is the most entertaining chapter in his book. There was sharp practice on both sides. Lyman Beecher, who came from Boston, breathing out threatenings and slaughter against Finney and his friends, allowed that they were full-grown men and not a company of boys. It being moved that females were not to pray in public meetings, Finney proposed the question whether a woman ought ever to pray in the presence of a man. A motion that the calling of persons by name in prayer should be avoided was successfully amended by making it read "public prayer," and the incorrigibles who had suffered under the former dispensation must have been relieved. "Audible groaning in prayer" was voted objectionable "on all ordinary occasions." The qualifying adjective was all

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the party favorable to audible groaning could desire. The Convention was successful as a trial of wits, in which Finney's party came off more than conquerors in the main. At the next General Assembly the contestants signed a paper agreeing to speak and write no more about the matter.

The sphere of Finney's labors as a revivalist was much widened from this time (1828) until his removal to Oberlin in 1835. Prof. Wright gives a good account of Oberlin College, pathetic in its suggestions of the day of small things. The early direction of the movement depended more on Arthur Tappan than on any other person, and some pages are devoted to an account of his career and his relation to the anti-slavery cause. Although the beginnings of Oberlin were directly associated with the recreancy of Lyman Beecher and the anti-slavery revolt of his students from Lane Theological Seminary, it was apparently Finney's theological ability and not his anti-slavery sentiments that led to his Oberlin appointment. His anti-slavery sentiments were always subordinate to his theological spirit. He shared the fear of Tappan and the abolitionists of the new organization generally that abolitionism might work the disadvantage of their ecclesiastical system. It was, nevertheless, a brave thing, in 1834, to start a college giving men and women, white and black, an equal opportunity, though it is noticeable that the money for the start could not be got if negroes were excluded. This argument was very powerful with the Colonizationists, who were at first in the majority. It is difficult at this remove to see what should have suggested Finney as a fit person to fill the chair of theology. Of early education he had had but little; of special training in theology, next to none; and there is no evidence that his work at Oberlin had any scholarly quality. His early legal practice served him well, and he could argue effectively his theological tenets, and manipulate Bible texts to suit his purposes, much as he had his legal texts before. It was well for his peace of mind that he did not abandon his revivalist work. That was his joy and crown.

Prof. Wright gives a full account of his theological opinions, deriving them from the revised Calvinism of Dr. N. W. Taylor; but they had a good deal of personal accentuation. They were substantially the opinions of the New School Presbyterians, and Prof. Wright's volume derives not a little of its interest from the comparison which it continually suggests between the differences of Old School and New fifty years ago, and those which are now agitating the bosom of the Presbyterian Church. The reader finds himself wondering that the differences then could stir up so much feeling and produce a schism in the body.

It remains to hint the cardinal defect of Prof. Wright's book, viz., that it conveys to us no adequate sense of Finney's personality. There is much about the revivalist and theologian; little about the man. We are constrained to fear the man was buried out of sight under the revivalist and theologian; that he had little or no humanity to attract the pen of his biographer.

Across Russia from the Baltic to the Danube. By Charles Augustus Stoddard. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THE honor of contributing the latest volume to the library of what may be termed "Cook's tourist literature" belongs to Mr. Stoddard. Were it not for the infinite possibilities contained in this sort of composition, one might pronounce at once that this specimen will never be excelled. For the present, at least, it stands at the head of the mosaic department.

The author begins his Russian trip with descriptions of Sweden, but it is not necessary to note his utterances until he touches what is, nominally, Russian soil, in Finland. As the national name for that country is totally different, it is etymologically interesting to read that it is derived from "Fenland," the land of lakes and marshes, in English. Why not make a bold dash and say that it comes from *finik*, the Russian for a date tree, because dates may have thrived there when the mammoth roamed the Siberian wilds? However, we may accept the author's dictum on that subject as readily as on the next few points: that the Finnish language is different from all others in Europe, that *vodki* is a Finnish word, or that the legend which he quotes from a Russian book of the peewit, with its purely Russian cry of *peet*, is distinctively Finnish.

Mr. Stoddard's plan has the merit of simplicity. He has read Rambaud's 'History of Russia,' the ordinary guide-books, and whatever published works have come to hand, and has copied them verbatim, in fragments, often very roughly welded, and intermixed with superficial observations of his own. In many instances he acknowledges his authorities. In others he does not, and copies inaccurately. The trail of the guide-book is over it all, including the style. It is hardly necessary to state that the author could not make many original, accurate, or valuable personal surveys in the ten days or fortnight which he seems to have devoted to the vast empire, where he was dependent upon the information vouchsafed by foreign guides, who must have been nearly as ignorant of the language as himself, judging from the results.

It is impossible to enter into minute detail as to all the errors, but a few may be indicated, chiefly by negatives. A change of rooms in the hotel does not require a fresh visé on the passport. Servants do not have to pay six rubles for passports. Cronstadt houses are not all of one story. The apothecary never has a painting of pills on his sign. The droshky has a defence against the mud and dirt, and the driver's coat has not gathers at the neck. The Winter Palace does not curve around an immense open space. The imperial lackeys did not take the hats and coats of the travellers for the sake of increasing the fee—it was in compliance with the comfortable and healthy Russian custom of removing all outdoor garments in the house—and the guide probably pocketed what he pretended to give to the librarian at the Imperial Library. The gold and silver dishes in the Winter Palace ball-room were not presented by the towns and cities of Europe. Each step of the porticos at St. Isaac's Cathedral is not made of a single block of granite. The omophorion is not a robe. The paragraph on page 85, in regard to the dearth of books and periodicals, and the small stock of the book shops in St. Petersburg, betrays lack of the most ordinary observation. The remarks on beds might have been omitted, since the writer evidently never entered a Russian house, and was obliged to quote a person equally ignorant. Again, any one in the least acquainted with the baptismal service in the Russian Church would have perceived the absurdity of the statement that infants are baptised in the frozen Neva in the middle of January. But if people will persist in writing books about the manners and customs of the Russians in winter, and the habits of the upper classes, whom they see in summer trips no more than foreigners see wealthy Americans in New York in August, they must endure the consequences of their folly. The Nikolai bridge is not the only permanent bridge over the Neva. *Kvas* is not made of barley meal, salt, and honey, any more than cabbage soup (*shtshee*) is made according to the receipt furnished. *Botvinya*, also, is not a "fish salad." The upper story of the St. Petersburg Bazaar is not devoted to wholesale, and the merchants do not tend shop in winter clad in wolf-skin and bear-skin coats. The author assuredly never saw feather beds at any season or fur coats in summer on the platforms of the railway stations, and when he compares the brass basin and pitcher ablutions (to be found only on one route) with the "generous bath-tub of England or America," it is not out of place to inquire where bath-tubs are provided for the traveller in the countries named, except in private cars? The picture of the Archbishop walking round the church on his knees, on Easter night, is as curious as the title of "The Virgin's Rest" for the Assumption Cathedral in the Moscow Kremlin, the idea that Sophia Palæologus brought the ceremonials of the Greek Church to Moscow when she married Ivan III., and that the Tzesarevitch Dmitry (who was murdered in Uglitch, as the weakest historical student is aware) was thrown down the Red Staircase of the Kremlin Palace by his assassins. The assumption that Russian women of the present day are strictly secluded in Eastern fashion, simply because the traveller did not see many in the Moscow streets at the dead season of the year, is as gratuitous as that the nurses of the Foundling Asylum were ranged in order to receive the tourists.

There are plenty of other similar misstatements, which it is not worth while to chronicle here. One of the puzzles of the book is why the author has not described in his own words the things which struck him forcibly, instead of quoting Théophile Gautier and various travellers as hasty as himself. In fact, the book might have been much more cheaply pieced together in the author's study, so far as any value of personal experience or judgment is concerned, with one or two trivial exceptions. Yet personal observation and experience furnish the excuse for this wonderful piece of patchwork by a hand which is unskilled in literary work. The historical parts, again, which chance to be correct, are so ill-arranged that the uninitiated reader, for whom the book is prepared, must frequently feel himself at a loss to discover the connection and sequence of events. The same is true of the arrangement of the other statements, which traverse vast distances with seven-league boots, and flit about erratically without the slightest indication of locality, so that the result is not only confusing, but productive of false deductions.

The journey to Warsaw and as far as Buda-Pesth is narrated in the same objectionable form. People who desire knowledge on the subject of Russia will do well to abstain from this volume and betake themselves to Rambaud, and Haxthausen, and the guide-books (with all their imperfections) direct. The task will be longer, but there will be some solid outcome of the labor, which cannot be urged in favor of this superfluous production.

Fossil Botany: Being an Introduction to Palæophytology from the standpoint of the botanist. By H. Graf zu Solms-Laubach, Professor in the University of Göttingen. The authorized English Translation, by Henry E. F. Garnsley, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Revised by

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Isaac Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S., Queen's Botanist in Scotland, etc., etc. With forty-nine illustrations. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xii, 401.

UNTIL within a few years, Palæophytology as a science has been in a far more unsatisfactory and rudimentary condition than its companion science of Palæontology. The most evident reasons for this comparative inferiority are, first, that vegetable tissues are far more perishable than the shells of molluscs and crustaceans and the bones of vertebrate animals, and consequently such remains of the vegetation of the Devonian and Carboniferous ages as have been found do not at first sight reveal the nature of the plant as clearly as shells and bones reveal the animal; and, in the next place, as we have but slowly learned, these ancient plants must have differed from recent vegetation far more, on the average, than palæozoic animals differed from animals now living. It is true that if angiosperms were lacking in the primeval ages, not less were mammalia not yet produced; but the coal-plants certainly were less like modern gymnosperms and acrogens than were the ancient radiates and molluscs like those of the present age. Consequently, as botanists had enough to do with present vegetation, they gave generally but little attention to the vegetation of the coal measures, and those who, like Brongniart, actually undertook their study, found that only their most general conclusions were acceptable to the students of living plants. In later years, thanks especially to the newer processes of microscopic lithoscopy, the real structure of ancient plants has become far better understood, and the true character of carboniferous Ferns, Lepidodendreæ, Sigillarieæ, etc., is now becoming daily better known.

While the distinguished author of the present work modestly calls it an Introduction to Palæophytology, it is really a well-digested and condensed summary of what is now known of this science. The work deals only with the Gymnosperms and plants below them in rank, the Angiosperms not being taken up, apparently for the very good reason that as they first appeared during the Cretaceous period, they do not come within the view of palæophytology as it is limited in the present work. Count Solms-Laubach has long been acknowledged as very high authority in this department of learning; and it is a fortunate thing for English readers that his investigations and conclusions are now put fairly within their reach.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agnew, Cora. Peerless Cathleen. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Akers, Elizabeth. The High-Top Sweeting, and Other Poems. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Allen, Grant. Dumaresq's Daughter. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Barnes, Mary S. Studies in American History. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Barrett, Frank. Olga's Crime. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Balmaseda, Francisco J. El Libro de los Labradores. Havana: Imprenta Nacional y Extrangera.
Baynes, Herbert. Dante and his Ideal. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Berdoe, Edward. Browning's Message to his Time. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bergen, Fanny D. Glimpses a the Plant World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
Bigelow, M. M. Elements of the Law of Torts. 4th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bishop, W. H. The Yellow Snake. John W. Lovell Co. $1.25.
Blackman, Prof. F. W. Spanish Institutions of the Southwest. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.
Brainard, F. R. The Sextant, and Other Reflecting Mathematical Instruments. D. Van Nostrand & Co. 50 cents.
Brown, P. H. Early Travellers in Scotland, 1295–1689. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Burne, Maj.-Gen. Owen T. Clyde and Straithnairn. [Rulers of India.] Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Burney, Capt. James. History of the Buccaneers of America. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Caldecott, Alfred. English Colonization and Empire. [University Extension Manuals.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Carpenter, E. J. A Woman of Shawmut. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Carson, H. L. The Supreme Court of the United States: its History, and its Centennial Celebration. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co.
Cassedy, F. H. The Milton Tragedy. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Child, Theodore. The Spanish-American Republics. Harper & Bros. $3.50.
Chisholm, G. C., and Leete, C. H. School Geography for North America. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Compton, Herbert. A Master Mariner. [The Adventure Series.] Macmillan & Co.
Cornwallis, K. A Marvellous Coincidence. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Ehrenfechter, C. A. Technical Study in the Art of Piano-Forte Playing. London: William Reeves; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Everett, Prof. C. C. Ethics for Young People. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Falconer, Lanoe. Cecilia de Noël. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Fane, Violet. Constance's Fate. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Darkness and Dawn, or Scenes in the Days of Nero. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Fitch, Henry. The Perfect Calendar for Every Year of the Christian Era. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.
Fitch, Mary R. Child Classics. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Flügel, Ewald. Thomas Carlyle's Moral and Religious Development. New York: M. L. Holbrook.
Gazier, A. Petite Histoire de la Littérature française. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Granger, F. S. Psychology. [University Extension Series.] London: Methuen & Co.
Granville, Austyn. The Shadow of Shame. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Greene, Prof. Dascom. An Introduction to Spherical and Practical Astronomy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Grego, Joseph. The Reminiscences and Recollections of Captain Gronow. 2 vols. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $10.
Guerazzi, F. D. Beatrice Cenci. G. W. Dillingham.
Guillemin, Amédée. Electricity and Magnetism. Macmillan & Co. $8.
Heron, G. A. Evidences of the Communicability of Consumption. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.75.
Hertzka, Theodor. Freeland: A Social Anticipation. D. Appleton & Co.
Hewett, Prof. W. T. Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea. [Modern Language Series.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Holmes, O. W. Elsie Venner. The Guardian Angel. [Riverside Edition. Vols. 5 and 6.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. The Albany Depot. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Knight, Prof. W. The Philosophy of the Beautiful. [University Extension Manuals.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.

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